DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 127 521	95	CG 010 749

AUTHOR	Farmer, Helen S.; Backer, Thomas E.
TITLE	Women at Work: A Counselor's Sourcebook.
INSTITUTION	Human Interaction Research Inst., Los Angeles, Calif.
SPONS AGENCY	National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Feb 75
CONTRACT	NIE-C-74-0100
NOTE	377p.; For related documents, see CG 010 747-750 ; Some pages may reproduce poorly due to print quality of original
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 HC-$20.75 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education; Annotated Bibliographies; *Counselor Training; *Discriminatory Legislation; *Employment Opportunities; Females; Labor Market; *Occupational Guidance; Reference Materials; Sex Differences; *Vocational Counseling; *Working Women

ABSTRACT

This book is designed to complement current literature dealing with the vocational counseling of women. The purpose of the book is to provide counselors with timely information regarding: (1) career opportunities for women in fields traditionally dominated by men; (2) legal rights of women in the world of work; (3) counseling strategies and techniques, particularly as related to the woman's role of homemaker/worker; and (4) current social science research on working women. Particular attention has been given to certain subgroups of women including reentry women, black women, widows, and divorcees. A secondary purpose of the book is to provide suggestions for sex-free counseling procedures such as identification of personal bias, use of occupational information to increase career options open to women, techniques of stereotypic attitude change, and teaching decision-making and problem-solving skills. Included are a list of references, appendices, subtopic titles, and charts and tables. (HLM)

Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original.

ED127521

WOMEN AT WORK:
A COUNSELOR'S SOURCEBOOK

by

Helen S. Farmer, Ph.D.

and

Thomas E. Backer, Ph.D.

February, 1975

Human Interaction Research Institute
10889 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, California

●

Prepared under funding
support by the National
Institute of Education
Contract No. NIE-C-74-0100

CG 010 749

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

★ BEFORE READING ON:

You might want to stop and take this little test.* Simply read each item and then indicate whether or not you agree with the statement by checking the appropriate column.

AGREE	DISAGREE	
_____	_____	1. A woman's place is in the home.
_____	_____	2. Women are not seriously attached to the labor force; that is, they work only for extra "pin money".
_____	_____	3. Women are absent from work more than men because of illness; therefore, they cost the company more.
_____	_____	4. Women don't work as many years or as regularly as men; their training is costly, and largely wasted.
_____	_____	5. When women work, they deprive men of job opportunities; therefore, women should quit those jobs they now hold.
_____	_____	6. Women should stick to "women's jobs" and should not compete for "men's jobs".
_____	_____	7. Women don't want responsibility on the job; they would prefer not to have promotions or job changes which add to their load.
_____	_____	8. Children of working mothers are more likely to become juvenile delinquents than children of non-working mothers.
_____	_____	9. Men don't like to work for women supervisors.
_____	_____	10. Housewives are happy women.
_____	_____	11. Education is wasted on women.
_____	_____	12. Women have a higher turnover and absenteeism rate than men.
_____	_____	13. Women get married, then quit work.

After you've read some of the Sourcebook, you may want to come back and review these items. Thinking about how many persons in today's America would answer some of these may help in appraising what this Sourcebook has to say. For counselors, this is also a "mini-test" that could be given to clients and then used as a basis for discussion.

---

*From Birk & Tanney (1973).

•Acknowledgements•

We have had the good fortune of much concerned and able assistance in producing this volume. Helen Astin (University of California, Los Angeles) provided important counsel as our senior consultant and she had a significant input into the design of the Sourcebook. A primary vote of thanks goes to Ann Phelps, our research assistant, whose prodigious work during the research phase was invaluable. She is the principal person responsible for the annotated bibliography that serves as a resource document for this report. Ivan Charner (Career Education Program, National Institute of Education) was a most helpful project officer, providing us both with creative ideas and with many primary source documents that otherwise would not have been available.

We are also grateful for the expert and scholarly imputs of a number of colleagues scattered throughout the country. Bernice Sandler (Project on the Status and Education of Women) provided an expert review of Chapter V. A. Garth Sorenson, (UCLA), reviewed the design of the Sourcebook and provided both a number of worthwhile suggestions. Lois-ellin Datta (Career Education Program, NIE) provided a helpful review of the entire Sourcebook.

Dale Prediger (American College Testing Program) and John Holland (Johns Hopkins University) are extended a vote of thanks for their generous sharing of recent research on sex bias in testing. We also are indebted to Joan Thompson (Women's Program Staff, Office of Education) for her careful edit of the text on black girls and

women, and to Mary June Smalley (same office), for her review of portions of Chapter V.

We are grateful to all those who participated in two workshops held to review drafts of the Sourcebook. The first, held in Los Angeles, was attended by Carline Aviani (West Los Angeles College), Marian Hunt (Human Interaction Research Institute), Alice Manion (UCLA Extension) and Ann Fogel (West Los Angeles College). Participants at the second workshop, held in Washington, D.C., included: Jessie Bernard, Carol Crump, Lance Hodes, Nancy Hunt, Chris Lotze, Ella Kelly, Mary Lou Randour, and Ivan Charner (Career Education Program, NIE); Kenneth Hoyt, Margot Lyddane and Doris Skatin (Office of Career Education, USOE); Bonnie Coe (U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Manpower Research); Ann Tickamyer (Women's Research Program, NIE); Donna Shavlik (American Council on Education); Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard (American Personnel and Guidance Association); and JoAnn Harris-Bowlsbey (Project DISCOVER, University of Maryland).

Prior to the first workshop, the Sourcebook design was reviewed by two counselors, Adele Scheele and Beverly Kaye (UCLA). Their suggestions, too, merit our appreciation.

Helen S. Farmer, Ph.D.
Thomas E. Backer, Ph.D.

•Table of Contents•

Before Reading On ii
Acknowledgements iii
List of Subtopic Titles vii
List of Charts and Tables xi
How to Use this Sourcebook xiii

I. INTRODUCTION 1

Assumptions 4
Sex Free Roles: A Humanistic Goal 5
The Growing Literature 7
How to Get and Use Information 9

II. THE FACTS: WOMEN AT WORK 11

What's In This Section 11
The International Scene 11
In America 21
Part-Time Working Arrangements Offer Flexibility 29
Child Care 31
Women in Management 33
Women in the Crafts 35
Women in the Professions 39
Earnings of Women Today and Tomorrow 53
Minority Women: Their Participation in the Work Force 66
Women Going to College 75
Continuing Education 91
Opportunities for Training in the Crafts 98
Trends 104

III. THE SPECIAL ISSUES: A REVIEW 107

What's In This Section 107
Does the Working Mother Hurt Her Children? 107
Biological Differences Between Women and Men 110
Psychological Differences Between Women and Men 113
Achievement Motivation 116
Needed Research 119

IV. THE COUNSELOR 121

What's In This Section 121
Every Woman Has These Counseling Needs 122
Special Groups of Women and Their Needs 138
Sex Bias and Counseling 147
Tools and Techniques for Counseling Women 154
Career Counseling for Special Groups of Women 208
Counselor Training: General Strategies 218
Planning in Practice for Change 219
Training Counselors to Evaluate Their Procedures and Programs 221

V. THE LAW: RECENT LEGISLATION AND ITS IMPACT 225

What's In This Section 225
Counselors Use the Equal Opportunity Laws 226
Legislation Relating to Sex Discrimination in Education 229
The Civil Rights Act and Equal Employment Opportunities 236
Affirmative Action Plans and Government Contractors 240
Resources for Writing Affirmative Action Plans 241
Gains for Women in 1973-74 and Executive Order 11246 242
Equal Rights Amendment 244

VI. THE RESOURCES 247

What's In This Section 247
Published Products 248
Organizations 256
Films 271
Miscellaneous 273

REFERENCES 279

APPENDICES *

A. Earned Bachelor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67
B. Earned Master's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67
C. Earned Doctor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67
D. Women in Experienced Civilian Labor Force, 1950, 1960 and 1970
E. Minority Group Employment by Occupation, Sex and State, 1970
F. Women Employed in the Skilled Trades, by Detailed Trade, 1960 and 1970
G. Get Credit For What You Know
H. Farmer Case Studies
I. NIE Guidelines on Testing
J. Preparing a Work Resume
K. Title VII
L. Executive Order 11246
M. Order No. 4
N. Recruiting Aids for Affirmative Action
O. Equal Rights: Question and Answer
P. Sex Discrimination
Q. List of Court Actions

---

*Appendices are paginated independently of text

•List of Subtopic Titles•

I. INTRODUCTION

(no subheads)

II. THE FACTS: WOMEN AT WORK IN THE SEVENTIES

The International Scene (11)*

- Common Themes
- Comparison with the United States

In America (21)

- More Women Are Working Than Ever Before
- Women's Employment Has Increased Faster Than Men's
- More Mothers Are Working
- More Women Continue to Work During the Childrearing Years
- More Education Facilitates Work Opportunities
- Discrimination Remains a Problem

Part-Time Work Arrangements Offer Flexibility (29)

- Advantages
- Disadvantages

Women in the Crafts (35)

- Why Are More Women Entering the Crafts?
- Many Women Have the Necessary Aptitudes for Craft Occupations
- Are Women Interested in Craft Occupations?

Women in the Professions (39)

- Opportunities Increasing in Nontraditional Professions
- Professions in Search of Workers
- Opportunities in Less Traditional Roles Look Favorable
- Opportunities in Traditional Roles Continue

Earnings of Women Today and Tomorrow (53)

- Salary Differences by Level of Education
- Salary Differences by Field of Occupation
- Why Are Women's Salaries Lower than Men's?

Minority Women: Their Participation in the Work Force (66)

- Earning Differentials Narrow
- Educational Differentials Narrow
- More Minority Mothers Work than White Mothers
- Minority High School Dropouts Have Higher Unemployment Rate
- Occupations by Field for Minority and White Women

---

*page number in text

Women Going to College (75)

- The Opportunities
- The Law
- College Enrollment Rates
- Degree Obtained
- Post Graduate Education
- Women and Natural Sciences
- Fellowship Aid Increasing
- Barriers to Part-time Graduate Study Coming Down
- Some Barriers to higher Education Remain
- Criteria Other Than "Merit" Used in Admissions

Trends (104)

- International
- United States

III. THE SPECIAL ISSUES: A REVIEW

Psychological Differences Between Women and Men (110)

- Sociability and Affiliation
- Intelligence
- Learning
- Dominance and Activity Level

IV. THE COUNSELOR

Every Woman Has These Counseling Needs (122)

- Theories of Career Development in Girls and Women
- Developmental Differences
- Evidence in Society for the Dual Role of Employed Women
- The Sociological Theory of Career Development
- Holland's Career Development Theory

Special Groups of Women and Their Needs (138)

- The Reentry Woman
- Black Women: Special Needs
- Black Women and Home-Career Conflict
- Fear of Success, Black Women and Achievement Motivation
- Divorcees and Widows: Special Needs

Sex Bias in Counseling (147)

- Counselor Bias
- Sex Bias in Tests
- Sex Bias in Career Information

Tools and Techniques For Counseling Women (154)

- Guidelines for When to Use Individual or Group Counseling with Women

Assessment and Diagnosis of the Counseling Needs of Women
What to Have on Hand
Career Development Counseling
Information About The Self
Career Options for Women
Use of Tests In Counseling to Increase Career Options
Interest Measures for High School Girls
Interest Inventories for College Students and Adult Women
Use of Aptitude Tests in Career Counseling for Women
Providing Exposure to New Career Models
Live Models
Films Present Women in New Roles
Exposure to New Career Models Through Printed Materials
Group Discussion and Exploration
Work Experience
Professional Volunteerism
Decision-Making Skills Using Career Information to Make Informed Choices
Computer Assisted Career Counseling for Girls and Women
Planning for Multiple Roles
Training Counselors to Help Girls and Women Plan for Multiple Roles
Job Search and Job Keeping Skills
Counselor Practice in Teaching Needed Skills to Girls and Women
Establishing a Personal Resource Network
Study Skills
Communication Skills
Interpersonal Skills
Assertiveness Training
Counseling to Change Attitudes
Identifying and Changing Sex Role Stereotypes in Counselors
Cooperative Planning to Increase Career Opportunities for Girls and Women

Career Counseling for Special Groups of Women (208)

Counseling Reentry Women
Reentry Women Regain Self-Confidence
Reentry Women Overcome Obstacles
Multiple Role Planning for the Reentry Woman
Continuing Education Programs and Opportunities for Women
Reentry Women Obtain Academic Credit for What They Know
Counseling Black Women
Interest Inventories and Black Women
Counseling Widows and Divorcees

Training Counselors to Evaluate Their Procedures and Programs (221)

Why Evaluate?
The Process

V. THE LAW: RECENT LEGISLATION AND ITS IMPACT

Legislation Relating to Sex Discrimination in Education (229)

- Court Cases: Equal Opportunity in Education
- Court Cases: Equal Opportunity in Educational Employment: Title VII
- Public Health Service Act: Titles VII and VIII
- Women's Educational Equity Act

VI. THE RESOURCES: WHERE TO GET MORE INFORMATION

Published Products (248)

- Newsletters
- Current Annotated Bibliographies on Women
- Journals
- Career Development Inventories

Organizations (256)

- The Women's Bureau
- Government Organizations Providing Publications About Women
- Non-Government Organizations Providing Publications About Women
- Publishing Houses with Materials Available on Women
- Catalyst

Films (271)

- Films on Women's Changing Roles

Miscellaneous (273)

- Training Packages
- Resource Listing for Counselor Training in Sex Free Counseling
- Research in Progress

•List of Charts and Tables•

Chart or Table Number	Title	Page
1	The Growth In Women's Labor Force Participation, 1950-1972	13
2	Labor Force Participation By Level of Education and Sex (%)	14
3	Earnings Differentials	17
4	Proportion of Women in Different Occupational Categories	20
5	Women's Employment Has Increased Faster Than Men's	22
6	Mothers Are More Likely to Work Today Than Ever Before	23
7	Labor Force Participation of Women Over a Working Life of Groups of Women Born in Selected Time Intervals, 1886-1955	25
8	Women's Educational Attainment and Labor Force Participation	26
9	Occupational Distribution of Women and Men in 1972	28
10	Women Increase Participation in Skilled Trades Formerly Dominated by Men	37
11	Craft Occupations in Which a Rapid Employment Increase is Expected for the Seventies	40
12	Proportion of Women in the Labor Force and in the Professions, United States, 1870-1970	41
13	In 1870, Women Played a Very Small Part in Some Professions	43
14	Professional Occupations in Which a Large Number of Openings are Expected Annually	44
15	Participation of Women in Several Non-Traditional Professions	45
16	Women in the Professions, 1870-1970 (lower levels)	49
17	Women in the Professions, 1870-1970 (higher levels)	51
18	Health Workers Needed in the Next Decade	52
19	Most Women Work Because of Economic Need	54
20	Annual Income by Age, for Male and Female High School and College Graduates	59
21	Median Income in 1970 of Full-Time Year-Round Workers, by Sex and Years of School Completed	60
22	Median Wage or Salary Income of Full-Time Year-Round Workers, by Sex and Selected Major Occupation Group, 1970	62
23	Average Starting Monthly Salary for June 1970 and 1971 College Graduates, by Sex and Selected Field	63
24	Gross hours and Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers on Private Nonagricultural Payrolls, Selected Industries, January 1973	65
25	Median Years of School Completed by Workers, by Sex and Race, March 1959 and 1973	68
26	Percent of Mothers in Labor Force, by Race, Age of Children, and Marital Status of Mother, March 1973	69
27	Work Experience in 1972 of Women Heads of Families With Incomes Below the Low-Income Level, by Race	70
28	Number of Own Children of Working Mothers, by Race, Type of Family, and Age of Children, March 1973	72

Chart or Table Number	Title	Page
29	Employment Status of High School Graduates Not Enrolled in College and Dropouts Aged 16 to 21 Years, by Sex and Race, October 1972	73
30	Percent of Persons in Civilian Labor Force, by Age, Sex, and Race, 1973	74
31	Major Occupation Groups of Employed Women, by Race, 1960 and 1973	76
32	Percent of Bachelor's Degrees Received by Women in Various Fields	80
33	2 Out of 5 Women College Graduates Major in Education	81
34	Percent of Women Enrolled in Professional Training, Selected Fields	82
35	Fraction of Recent B.A.'s Who Receive Ph.D.'s	84
36	Women Obtain More Degrees in Math than the Natural Sciences in 1967	86
37	Fellowships Classified by Field, 1968-73	88
38	Favoritism in Schools of Differing Quality	90
39	Women Enrolled in Public Vocational Courses, by Type of Program, 1966-67	101
40	Counselor's Activities	124
41	Saaris, Tittle and Jacklin Findings	131
42	Types of Behaviors Performed by Children (C) and Adults (A) of each Sex (M/F) Given in Frequencies and in Percentages of Total Behaviors by each Age and Sex	132
43	Life Career Preferences of Black and White Women by Investigator	143
44	Career Development - A Three Stage Process	162
45	Health Career Clusters	165
46	Manufacturing Career Clusters	166
47	Occupational Finder	168
48	Most Popular Jobs and Selected Other Jobs in Same Occupational Level	169
49	A Comparison of Non-Assertive, Assertive and Aggressive Behavior	196
50	Federal Laws and Regulations Concerning Sex Discrimination in Educational Institutions	230
51	Women's Units in 67 Organizations	257
52	Catalyst National Network of Local Resource Centers	266

•HOW TO USE THIS SOURCEBOOK•

This Sourcebook should be viewed as a companion to currently available texts in the career guidance counseling field. Its emphasis is on recent advances in the counseling field, and on the most up-to-date information about women's participation in the labor market. Thus we have not attempted to develop a comprehensive reference work. The orientation is to what's new that a counselor or researcher might be interested in, and on how to get further information on the various topics covered.

▶For Counselors:

Counselors may find this volume useful in several ways. It contains a good deal of primary information, and thus can be a handy reference book somewhat like an almanac or condensed encyclopedia. The book also gives a wealth of names, addresses, phone numbers, publication data, and other facts that can be employed to make contact with the primary information a counselor may need, even though the specific facts themselves may not be within these pages.

We hope this volume will sit on your desk and be used before, after and during counseling sessions. Show tables, appendices or anything in the book to your clients, when you feel it will help to make a point. The companion piece to this document (Things Are Looking Up) may be given to clients for reading on their own time. It is a short, easy-to-read summary of highlights from this document.

▶For Counselor Trainers:

This book may also serve as a reference volume for you, and perhaps as a text for use in training courses. Chapter IV, in particular, contains information that may be very helpful in designing a training program, and Chapter VI presents details about potential resources a program could tap into.

▶For Researchers:

Women's studies, and career counseling with a specific focus on women and girls, are certainly burgeoning areas for both theoretical and applied research. Though much of what is presented here has an "applied" flavor, we also have surveyed the scholarly literature and synopsize that review herein. Chapter III may be particularly of interest to those working in the fields of psychology, sociology and so forth.

We also urge you to consult Selected Annotated Bibliography on Women at Work, which contains 240 annotations of books, reports and journal articles relevant to this field.

▶For All Readers -- How to Find What You're Looking For:

The Sourcebook has been carefully organized in an effort to present a variety of information within a meaningful structure. We had much ground to cover, though, so some access devices seemed required. In addition to a regular Table of Contents, we have provided a List of Subtopic Titles, organized by chapter, that presents every subhead actually used in the text and the page on which it appears.

Also, we give here a brief synopsis of each chapter:

Chapter I introduces the reader to the purposes of the Sourcebook, its intended audiences (counselors, counselor trainers and researchers) and the set of philosophical assumptions which underly what is to follow.

Chapter II presents numerous facts and statistics about women at work in the 70's, both in the United States and abroad. Emerging positive trends are highlighted -- more women are entering the crafts, nontraditional professions are opening up, management roles are more accessible, etc. Women's earnings, opportunities in apprenticeship programs, minority women at work, growth of part-time flexibly-scheduled work, and continuing education are among the topics for which recent facts and figures are presented.

Chapter III review some current issues related to counseling women and girls. These issues are as yet unresolved -- and often controversial -- either because research evidence about them is inconclusive, or because the social values underlying them are in a state of transition. Impact of mothers' employment on their children's well-being, biological and psychological sex differences, and achievement motivation in girls and women are among the topics discussed.

Chapter IV discusses relevant techniques for various counseling problems faced by girls and women today. It stresses counseling for career development in a framework that focuses on increasing the career options open to women, consistent with their interests and abilities. Unique aspects of the career development of girls are discussed, including planning for multiple roles of homemaker, wife, community member and worker. Needs of several subpopulations of girls and women (minorities, divorcees, widows, career changers and reentry women) are discussed. Ways to facilitate attitude changes in girls and women, especially those attitudes which inhibit or depress career aspiration level also are presented. How to train counselors in the use of occupational information, counseling for career development, decision-making, needed skills, assertiveness training, planning for multiple roles, meeting psychological as well as skill needs are discussed.

Chapter V summarizes laws pertaining to equal opportunity for women in education and employment, and their equal rights as citizens. A synopsis of court actions issuing from these laws also is presented.

Chapter VI provides listing of various resources -- both products and organizations useful to the counselor of girls and women. Audio tapes and films on women are listed, as are catalogues and annotated bibliographies on women. Other products or printed materials cited include relevant journals and newsletters, tests and counselor training materials. Organizations listed include legal aid facilities, publishing houses, resource centers and other facilities oriented to women in the world of work.

Although an annotated bibliography has been prepared as a companion piece to this volume, a separate listing of reference citations also is presented here. Finally, the Sourcebook contains a lengthy set of appendices that provide additional source material (see listing in Table of Contents).

I. INTRODUCTION

There is an urgent need today for up-to-date information career counselors can use in working with women and girls. As female participation in the international labor force increases, more women and girls have important career decisions to face. Yet many of the information resources counselors have used in the past are biased, misleading and generally out-of-date.

This Sourcebook's primary purpose is to provide timely information for use by counselors in several domains: (1) Career opportunities for women, particularly in occupations formerly dominated by men; (2) Legal rights of women related to the world of work; (3) Counseling techniques and strategies, especially as these are related to the dual role of homemaker/worker; and (4) What current social science research has to say about women in the work force. Perhaps even more importantly, we have tried in all four of these domains to identify resources that counselors can tap for information. Career counseling for women is a rapidly changing field, some of what we say here will soon be out of date. Thus, we hope the counselor can use this volume as a directory for identifying other resources.

Some subgroups of women have been given special attention here; others are not really so well covered. Reentry women (those coming back into the labor force after being a homemaker), black women and widows and divorcees are the emphasized groups. Given much less coverage are single women; women of Spanish, Indian or Oriental descent; women in rival localities; and unwed mothers. This unbalanced coverage partly reflects the relative lack of published material concerning the latter groups, and partly limitations of resources in the authors' information retrieval process. We want to make these information gaps clear at the outset.

A secondary purpose of the Sourcebook is to provide counselor trainers with suggestions for training counselors in sex-free counseling procedures. Suggestions are presented for helping counselors to identify their own biases; also, information is given relevant to training counselors in (1) the use of occupational information to increase the career options open to girls and women, (2) techniques of stereotypic attitude change, and (3) teaching decision-making and problem-solving skills.

Finally, the Sourcebook may be relevant to researchers seeking an up-to-date, though not comprehensive, review.

Coverage of each of the above mentioned topic areas is very timely. In the past decade, women have been entering "nontraditional" occupations in increasing numbers -- it is no longer appropriate to raise eyebrows over women who wish to become carpenters or astronauts. Unfortunately, much of the information provided to women and girls seeking career guidance is derived from tests developed (and normed) more for men than for women, and which therefore yield misleading information. Career information materials such as the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (D.O.T.) and the Occupational Outlook Handbook have been found to be sex-biased in their presentation of occupations. Hence, this volume's emphasis on career information specially targeted to the guidance needs of women and girls.

Counselors also are increasingly being asked to provide information concerning the legal rights of women, and about pending legislation affecting equal opportunities for women and girls. The counselor needs to know what the laws are, what they mean, and how they can be used.

We now know that women often need professional guidance in planning for the dual role of homemaker and worker. Statistics indicate that nine out of ten women in the United States will work at some time in their lives. Working women spend an average of four hours a day on homemaking tasks, in addition to time spent at their place of employment. More working women are married than single, and increasingly more mothers of young children are in the labor force. Coordinating the roles of cook, mother, housekeeper, wife and employed worker takes master planning. Counseling techniques are now being developed to provide these competencies and others.

Finally, many attitudes held by women and girls hinder developing their full potential as persons. Attitudes of husbands, parents, teachers, counselors and employers, to name a few, may also hinder development. "A woman's place is in the home," "Babies need their mothers when they are young," "Women were not intended to compete in a man's world," "Find a husband and he'll take of you," and "A woman can experience success through her husband" are a few of the social myths that inhibit the full work-related development of many girls and women. Counselors need to know what these attitudes are, how they develop in terms of individual and group psychology, how they vary from one culture to another, and how they can be modified.

The Sourcebook assumes the reader has a general knowledge of the principles of career development and career counseling. Although considerable attention is devoted to a review of relevant aspects of certain career development theories, some readers may benefit from a more general review, such as is provided in Samuel Osipow's Theories of Career Development (1973).

Assumptions

Some basic assumptions about counseling that helped guide all of the discussions to follow include:

1. The basic nature of man and woman is the same, in respect to their humanness; humanness involves the potential to be self-determining and to shape one's life.

2. Self-determination can flourish in an environment which also exerts strong pressures to conform and which powerfully influences the thinking and behavior of each individual.

3. Learning therefore is viewed as an interactive process in which both the individual and the environment shape what the person will become.

4. Learning of dysfunctional behaviors and attitudes (which interfere with the individual's optimal development and freedom to choose) also takes place through the individual's interaction with the environment.

5. The unlearning of these dysfunctional behaviors and attitudes takes place through a new interaction with the environment in which attempts are made to increase the self-determination of the individual and his ability to select from the environment those experiences and materials which will enhance his growth. Attitudinal and behavioral change may take place through changing the environment as well as the individual.

Naturally, readers may choose to disagree with one or more of these assumptions and still make use of the information this Sourcebook has to give. The authors merely wished to make their own orientation specific at the outset.

Sex Free Roles: A Humanistic Goal

A number of writers have suggested that we should begin to teach our children more flexible attitudes toward sex roles, attitudes making it comfortable for boys to cook and take care of children, for example, and for girls to wield a hacksaw or drive a tractor. Androgyny is the term several writers have used to describe this goal (Bardwick, 1974; Bem, 1972; Calderone, 1972; Lewis, 1973; Maccoby, 1974; Mead, 1974; Saario, 1973). "Andros" means man in Greek and "gyne" means woman, so "androgynous" literally means man-woman or "both male and female in one," according to Webster.

This word now is used to mean "sex-free" roles, not bisexuality, as in the past. Thus, we have Maccoby (1974) speaking of increasing sex-free-ego-space; Lee and Gropper (1974) speaking of a bi-cultural curriculum in the schools; and Calderone (1972) speaking of reciprocal sex roles replacing complementary ones:

> The attitude that we are human beings first and then male and female, and that the things that we do and enjoy are not what distinguish the sexes, should begin to permeate not only the attitudes with which we bring up our children but their toys and their children's literature. (p. 279)

Bardwick (1974) warns against trusting legislation to bring about the necessary changes to make equality for the sexes in work and the economy a reality. She suggests instead a long-range view which has goals for both sexes. A shortrange view is one which would have women achieve all that men have achieved and to inherit their disenchantment with success. The long view, on the other hand, emphasizes multiple options for both men and women, rather then stereotyped roles for either sex.

Mussen (1969) studied the mental health of high and low masculine boys and men. He found that boys of 18 who scored low on masculinity also scored lower on the California Adjustment Inventory (CAI) than the boys who scored high on the masculinity scale. However, 20 years later, these same boys, now men, presented a different picture. The high masculine boys, at age 38, scored lower on the Adjustment Inventory, and the reverse was true for the low masculine boys. Harford, et al. (1967) found high masculinity positively correlated with anxiety, guilt proneness, tough poise, and suspectingness in a sample of 213 males, ages 20-60, while low masculinity correlated with warmth, emotional stability, sensitivity, bohemianism and sophistication. In general, Bem (1972) concluded from a review of these studies, it would appear that except during adolescence when the male subculture values masculinity, sex-typed interests do not increase the male's psychological adjustment; in fact, they may even retard it.

The research indicates that girls with high feminine scores also are anxious and poorly adjusted (Maccoby, 1966). Maccoby found that girls and boys who scored in the middle range on masculinity and femininity scales tended to have higher overall intelligence, higher spatial ability, higher creativity. She also found that girls with so-called masculine traits such as impulsiveness and aggressiveness were high achievers academically, and that boys who were passive and fearful were, compared to other boys, also high academic achievers. Kagan (1972) and Kohiberg (1966) found that highly sex-typed individuals invested a lot of psychological energy in maintaining their sex-typed image. In contrast, the more androgynous individual can shift roles with the changing situation's demands without threat. The androgynous person is comfortable being assertive, self-confident, independent, dependent, nurturant and tender, when appropriate.

A bi-cultural curriculum for the schools is proposed by Lee and Gropper (1974), to promote the development of sex-free people. Basically, they suggest that boys and girls should have equal access to educational and cultural experiences, resources and training. Their proposal is less expensive than changing all the textbooks, although that is desirable as well. Lee and Gropper illustrate how a classroom teacher might facilitate biculturalism in the classroom with the following incident:

> The boy takes some playdough in a pot to the stove. He announces that he is cooking. The mother (another pupil) says 'Daddies don't cook.' The 'dog' (another pupil) says the same thing. The boy moves back from the stove -- he says in a quiet voice, 'My poppy cooks ...' He stands off at a distance looking at the stove. He looks uncertain about what to do next. The teacher was watching the interaction, and she tells the two girls that daddies sometimes do cook. The boy immediately returns to the stove and starts to cook. (p.403)

The notion of "androgyny" may be termed the philosophy toward which forward-thinking counselors can strive.

The Growing Literature

When the review of the relevant literature for this Sourcebook began, we planned to cover publications issued from 1964 to 1974 concerning career counseling for women and women in the world of work. The identified literature was so mammoth, however, particularly in relation to women at work, that our review was refocused on publications since 1969, rather than attempting to cover the past ten years.

The reader also is cautioned that, given so vast a scope of specialized information to review, some may be presented in a different perspective from that intended by the original author. We apologize in advance for such unintended distortions, and can claim only to have tried our best to be true to original intents as we perceived them.

More than 200 annotated bibliographies citing research on women have been identified as part of our research. All of these have been published within the past decade. These bibliographies are listed in Chapter VI, and should provide the reader with a means of thoroughly reviewing what has been published in the 60's and 70's on women. One outstanding bibliography has recently been substantially updated. Eleanor Maccoby, working at Stanford University, published a bibliography of more than 500 items on the Development of Sex Differences in 1966, and recently (1974) published an update containing 1400 new items on this subject. Helen Astin's bibliography on Women:...Their Education and Careers (1971) contains 352 items, and her new bibliography on Sex Roles (1974) annotates 456 recent publications.

The growing literature on women is further attested to by the existence of Women's Studies Abstracts, a quarterly publication. The Clearing House on Women's Studies (Feminist Press) provides current information about more than 400 women's studies programs across the country. ERIC searches for women's studies and research on women would doubtless turn up an increasing amount of literature each year since the 1960's.

How to Get and Use Information

An earlier section of the Sourcebook gave some tips on how to get proper access to the information given here. We recommend similar strategyzing for accessing the wider information base of which this document is only an overview.

If you are a counselor working with girls and women, it may be useful to you to subscribe to Women's Studies Abstracts to keep current on new publications. Several journals and newsletters listed in Chapter VI also provide good sources for current information. The APA Monitor and the APGA Guidepost provide reviews of recent publications to members of these professional organizations. Women Today is a national biweekly newsletter covering issues relating to women in an unbiased manner. On Campus with Women is the newsletter produced by the Project on the Status and Education of Women, sponsored by the Association of American Colleges in Washington, D.C. Any of these publications may provide useful entries into the growing literature.

The U.S. Women's Bureau publishes a constant stream of pamphlets and books of current interest to women. These publications are based primarily on statistical information obtained from the Bureau of the Census, which is then analyzed with respect to specific subpopulations of women. A recent publication list from the Women's Bureau is reproduced in full in Chapter VI of this Sourcebook.

Many of the publications of the U.S. Women's Bureau are free, as are the publications from the Project on the Status and Education of Women. Get yourself on the mailing list of these organizations to obtain full benefit from their services.

II. THE FACTS: WOMEN AT WORK IN THE SEVENTIES

What's In This Section

No attempt is made in this chapter to provide counselors with all the information needed to guide girls and women in making sound career choices. Emerging positive trends are highlighted, continuing discriminatory practices outlined. References have been made to primary sources where more detailed information may be obtained.

There are at least two reasons for this overview approach to describing the current labor market scene. First, information current today is anachronistic tomorrow. Second, this information is published regularly in highly usable, updated form by the U.S. Department of Labor's Women's Bureau. Women's Bureau publications are available to the counselor for a nominal fee. Counselors are encouraged to have themselves placed on the Women's Bureau mailing list (see address listing in Chapter VI).

The International Scene

The international picture for women at work has much in common with the American scene. The differences have primarily to do with contrasts between the industrialized countries and predominantly agricultural countries, and to differences in the proportions of women in particular occupations such as medicine, dentistry and engineering. We will describe the common elements first, and then take a brief look at the differences.

Common Themes

The most significant common themes concern the dual worker/homemaker role and the simple fact of women's increasing participation in the worldwide labor force. Tables 1 and 2 present some basic figures relevant to the latter. As the reader will note, 10 to 20 percent increases since 1950 are not uncommon (Kievit, 1972; Galenson, 1973; United Nations, 1970; Darling, 1973; Lilliston, 1974). No country reviewed (including Russia; countries in Western Europe; Israel; Great Britain; Canada; Japan; Latin American countries; Africa) had resolved the problems of planning for the dual role, particularly as related to responsibilities of motherhood. Childcare facilities are somewhat better in some countries than in others. France comes closest to providing enough public child care facilities for children under 3 years. In Israel, the Kibbutzim provide a solution for a significant percentage of the population, but they are far from comprehensive.

Resistance to providing institutional care for babies during working hours was found in all countries. The preferred solution is to bring substitute help into the home; second best is to take the baby or child to another home during working hours. Institutional day-care centers are third preference. It is unclear whether increasing the number of institutional crib and daycare centers would increase their actual use, since obstacles to their use include both the financial burden they impose on working mothers and negative attitudes concerning their effect on preschool children.

"Dual role" problems for working women grow primarily out of a value

Table 1

The Growth In Women's Labor Force Participation, 1950-1972

Country	Working women[a] as % of all women					
	Year	%	Year	%	Year	%
AUSTRALIA	1954	26.3	1961	28.9	1971	37.1
BELGIUM	1950	24.0	1960	23.2	1971	26.1
CANADA	1950	23.2	1960	27.9	1972	37.1
DENMARK	-	-	1967	49.1	1972	53.5
FINLAND	-	-	1960	48.4	1970	48.1
FRANCE	1954	38.4	1962	36.2	1973	38.1
JAPAN	1955	56.7	1960	54.5	1970	49.9
SWEDEN	1950	33.6	1965	48.7	1972	54.9
UNITED STATES	1950	33.9	1960	37.8	1972	43.8

(a) includes unpaid family helpers working 15 hours per week or more

Source: International Labour Office, 1971 Yearbook of Labour Statistics

Table 2

Labor Force Participation By
Level of Education and Sex (%)

	Women	Men
SWEDEN (1971)		
Primary and lower secondary (9 years)	47.5	78.2
Vocational secondary school	68.4	93.8
Up to 2 years post-secondary	72.7	82.1
Over 2 years post-secondary	80.6	91.4
AUSTRALIA (1966)		
Primary school	25.0	79.8
Secondary school		
- attended (7-10 years)	33.8	85.6
- completed (12 years)	47.6	82.2
University and other post-secondary	62.7	94.0
FRANCE (1968)		
No degree	28.6	
Primary school	40.4	
Vocational secondary school	62.9	
Academic secondary	61.7	
Higher degree	69.3	
UNITED STATES (1972)		
Primary school (8 years)	27.9	65.2
Secondary school		
- attended (9-11 years)	38.6	71.5
- completed (12 years)	50.5	88.5
University		
- attended (1-3 years)	49.0	81.3
- completed (4 years)	57.4	89.9

Source: International Labour Office, 1971 Yearbook of Labour Statistics

that seems to be accepted broadly in most countries. A woman's primary responsibility is to her family, and her work, if she is employed, must take second place whenever a choice has to be made. This is true even in those countries where primary responsibility for homemaking recently has been taken on by some husbands (e.g., in Sweden). On closer inspection, these instances appear exceptions rather than part of a positive trend (Galenson, 1973). Women, perhaps because they have the primary biological role in giving birth to and nursing babies, are considered to be the persons who should take primary responsibility for child care. Thus, working women often have to take time off from work when their children are sick or otherwise require care, even though it might be easier for the father to extract himself from his work setting.

In subcultures where the extended family still exists, it is possible for the mother of young children to work, secure in the knowledge that her children are well taken care of by a close relative. However, these subcultures exist primarily in the lower socioeconomic class. Middle-class women have neither the advantages of an extended family, nor the economic freedom to hire servants, and for them planning for the dual role is perhaps the most difficult.

Employers now are being encouraged to provide more flexible scheduling for working women to accomodate to their needs during the childbearing years. For example, working half time during the three years when children are nursery school age, and working a six hour day when the children are in elementary school (ages 6-14) is attractive to many women. Women can be encouraged to enter nontraditional occupations as employers in these occupations begin to provide for more flexibly scheduled part-time work as well as for full-time employment.

Recent trends in some countries indicate women in significantly increasing numbers now hold nontraditional blue collar jobs, such as bus driver, telephone lineworker and auto mechanic; also nontraditional white collar jobs such as engineer, pharmacist and physician. However, in all countries reviewed women tend to cluster in a restricted number of occupations in which few men work. This restriction of occupational entry-largely to position such as secretary, nurse, school, teacher, sales clerk or textile/garment industry worker-- contributes to the reality of lower salaries for women around the world.

In most countries, legislation prohibits discrimination in pay based on sex. However, in spite of such legislation, women typically earn less than men. Table 3 presents data for the countries reviewed here. Note that the per cent earnings based on hourly rather than yearly is a somewhat more accurate indicator, since yearly percentages are based on less hours annually for women than for men. However, even hourly percentages are misleading, since they are not corrected for level of skill. Studies (e.g., Stevenson, 1973) reporting average wages for women at higher levels of education indicate that substantial differences in wages appear in this range as well.

Table 3

Earnings Differentials

Country	Women's earnings as % of men's earnings	Basis of calculation
Australia		average weekly full time employees over 21 years old
1972	63.2	
1963	59.6	
Belgium		average yearly (?) for all employed in private industry
1971	53.0	
1959	40.0	
Canada		average hourly for a cross-section of occupations
1967	58.4	
Denmark		average hourly
1972	77.0	
1960	68.0	
Finland		average hourly in industry
1972	71.0	
France		average monthly full time
1972	71.8	
Japan		average yearly
1972	50.2	
Sweden		average yearly
1972	84.0	
1969	79.0	
United States		average hourly
1969	62.0	

Source: International Labour Office, 1971 Yearbook of Labour Statistics

Women held fewer management positions than men in most countries around the world. For example, the percentages in four prominant countries are as follows:

•Country	% of women	% of men
Australia	2.5	8.6
Finland	.4	7.8
Japan	.5	6.1
United States	4.8	20.0

In politics, women hold relatively few of the high elective or appointive positions internationally. Israel, India and Ceylon have women prime ministers, but in other spheres of government, women are not highly represented (Galenson, 1973). Galenson (1973) provides some figures for women's participation in the national legislative bodies of six major countries (data for the late 1960's):

•Country	Percentage
Finland	17%
Great Britain	4%
Norway	9%
Sweden (lower house)	14%
West Germany	7 to 9%
Soviet Union	28%

The women at higher political levels, in ministerial posts or in top party jobs, could be counted easily on one hand.

Comparison with the United States

In the crafts and related occupations, several countries have a higher percentage of women workers than the United States. By 1970, the United States could boast that 5% of those employed in craft occupations were women. Belgium and Denmark had more than three times that amount, 17 and 18 percent, respectively; France and Canada had 14 and 14.9 percent in the same period (Darling, 1973). Galenson (1973) reports Finland as having 24.5 percent in crafts and production work in 1970. Unfortunately, she does not break these figures down to indicate what percentage represents the crafts in particular. A growing interest in the crafts by American women suggests that a closer look should be taken at the situation in countries where women are more highly represented in this part of the labor force. Table 4 presents data from Darling (1973).

In comparison with many other countries, the U.S. unfortunately lags behind in terms of women's participation in medicine (Galenson, 1973):

•Country	Percentage	•Country	Percentage
Denmark	16.4%	Norway	10.3%
Finland	23.4%	Sweden	17.4%
France	12.8%	Switzerland	13.6%
Germany (F.R.)	20.0%	United States	6.7%
Great Britain	18.0%	USSR	75.0%
Italy	18.8%	Israel	24.0%
Phillipines	24.0%		

In 1972, 17% of new enrollments in American medical schools were women.*

A similar situation exists with respect to dentistry and pharmacy:

	Percentage	
•Country	Dentist	Pharmacist
Denmark	25.0	
Finland	76.9	85.8
Germany (F.R.)	13.0	
Norway	20.1	92.3
Sweden	23.6	68.9
Great Britain	10.6	33.0
United States	1.3	
France	23.0	
Greece	50.0	
USSR	80.0	

---

*It should be noted that the relatively high proportion of women physicians in Russia has not resulted in comparably increased earnings and status. Most women doctors in Russia are general practitioners, and have modest incomes (Galenson, 1973); they do not hold the higher status positions of medical specialists or surgeons in numbers equal to that of men.

Table 4

Proportion of Women in Different Occupational Categories
(women as a % of all persons in category)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Women as % of total
AUSTRALIA (1971)	42.3	12.0	48.3	63.8	–	13.7	13.1	15.5	62.7	31.6
BELGIUM (1961)	42.2	8.3	51.5	33.9	17.5	4.5	17.8	15.9	64.5	27.0
CANADA (1972)	41.2	14.3	38.8	72.0	14.9	15.3	8.8	14.1	59.1	33.6
DENMARK (1965)	50.8	14.4	42.7	62.9	18.3	9.5	26.9	17.0	77.6	38.4
FINLAND (1970)	–	4.5	63.3	62.2	–	23.0	15.6	33.2	63.1	
FRANCE (1968)	20.1	12.8	57.8	60.8	14.0	12.0	20.4	37.9	79.1	34.9
JAPAN (1970)	36.7	4.8	42.3	49.8	–	9.7	29.8	53.1	56.8	39.1
SWEDEN (1971)	44.6	10.1	50.3	77.6	–	–	14.1	22.1	78.6	40.1
UNITED STATES (1970)	39.9	16.6	38.6	73.6	5.0	31.5	8.4	9.5	60.0	38.0

Source : National reports ; International Labour Office, 1971 Year Book of Labour Statistics

(1) Professional and technical
(2) Managerial and administrative
(3) Sales workers, commerce
(4) Clerical, office workers
(5) Craftsmen, artisans
(6) Operatives, transport
(7) Manual workers
(8) Agricultural workers
(9) Personal Services, recreation

In America

Currently available data suggest expanding opportunities for women in the American workforce. More women are working than ever before, including mothers of young children, and more women are entering nontraditional occupations. Five emerging trends are discussed here.

1. More Women Are Working Than Ever Before

More women are working in the seventies than in the previous decade, and dramatically more women are working today than at the turn of the century. Then 18% of the overall workforce was female; now it is 38%. More than 50% of all women ages 18 to 64 are working, and nine out of ten girls will work at some time in their lives.

2. Women's Employment Has Increased Faster Than Men's

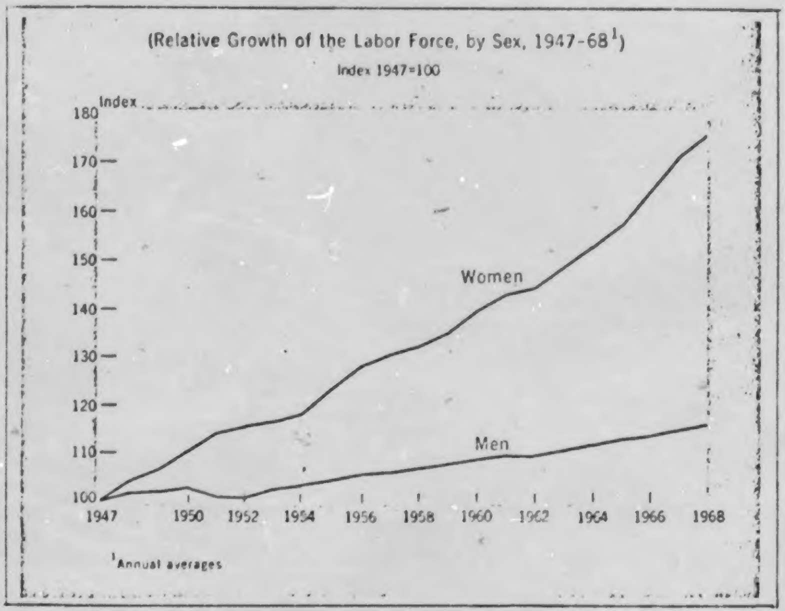
Women accounted for 50% of the increase in the labor force in the last decade. Chart 5 presents growth figures for men and women for the years 1947-68; it indicates that this growth trend has been increasing during this twenty year period.

3. More Mothers Are Working

In 1940, 4% of mothers of children under 18 were working, while today 37% of mothers in this category are working. In addition, 14% of working women are mothers with preschool children. These women represent more than 30% of women with preschool children. Chart 6 illustrates the increasing rate of mothers entering the labor force between the years 1948 and 1967. These figures suggest that much greater numbers of today's women are successfully combining homemaking and motherhood with careers outside the home.

Chart 5

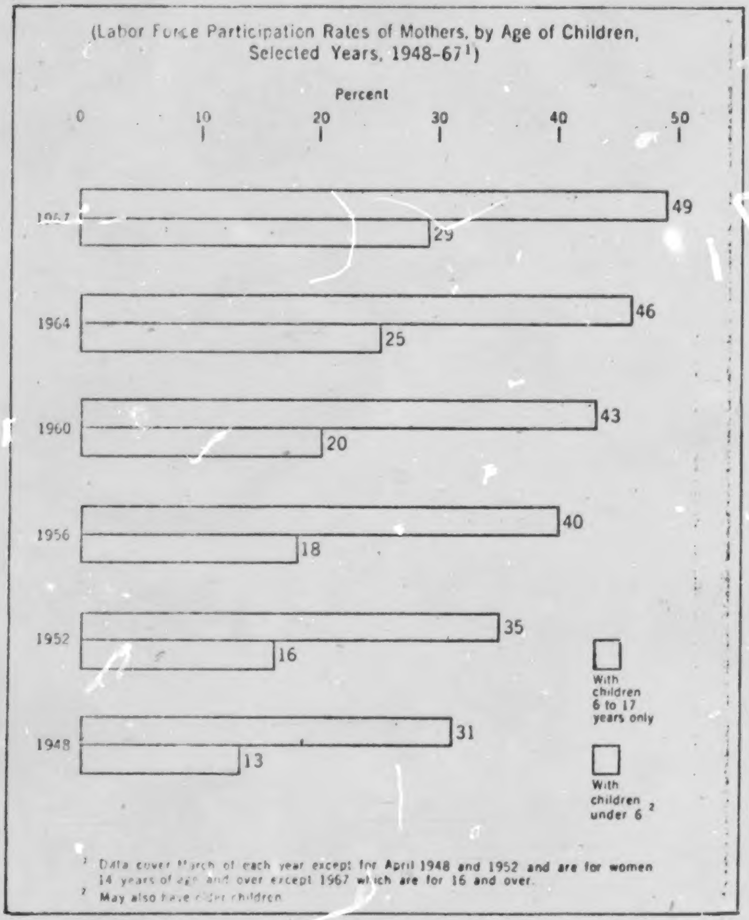
Women's Employment Has Increased Faster Than Men's



Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

Chart 6

Mothers Are More Likely to Work Today Than Ever Before



(Labor Force Participation Rates of Mothers, by Age of Children, Selected Years, 1948-67[1])

[1] Data cover March of each year except for April 1948 and 1952 and are for women 14 years of age and over except 1967 which are for 16 and over.

[2] May also have older children.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics; U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census

4. More Women Continue to Work During the Childrearing Years

Donald Super (1957) described women's career patterns as typically "interrupted" between the ages of 20-35. During these years, women devote full time to raising a family. Continuous careers for women were the exception in 1957. Chart 7 demonstrates that for women born after 1935, however, participation in the work force has not shown the usual interruption. In fact, participation of this generation of women in the work force has continued to increase from ages 20 to 30.

Whether this change in career pattern is due to mothers of young children staying in the labor force or to the decreasing birth rate among young married couples has not been determined. It is very likely a product of both these factors.

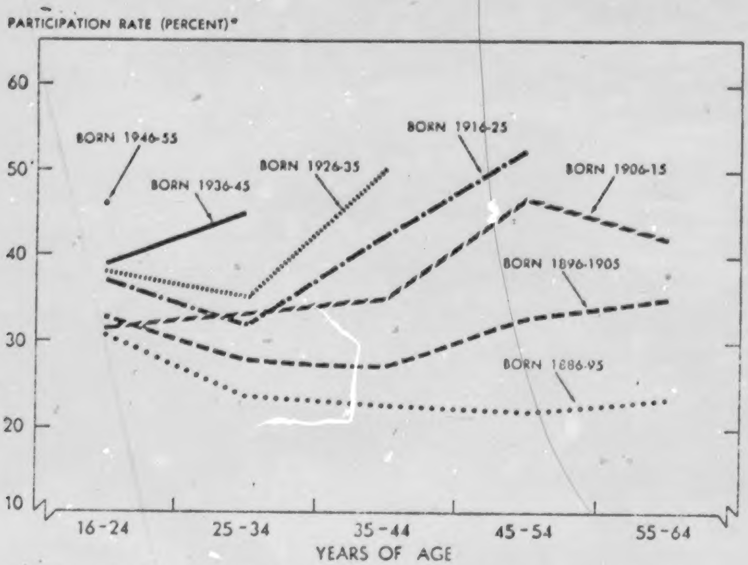
5. More Education Facilitates Work Opportunities

Women who have college degrees are more likely to work than women with less than four years of college. Women with graduate degrees are even more likely to work than their sisters who have only bachelors degrees. Chart 8 presents data on education as related to labor force participation.

In 1972, nearly 7 out of 10 women workers had at least a high school education, and 1 out of 9 was a college graduate. Generally, the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to be in the labor force. Of all women 16 years of age and over in the population who had completed less than 8 years of schooling, less than 1 out of 4 was in the labor force in 1972. However, half of those

Chart 7

Labor Force Participation of Women Over a Working Life of Groups of Women Born in Selected Time Intervals, 1886-1955



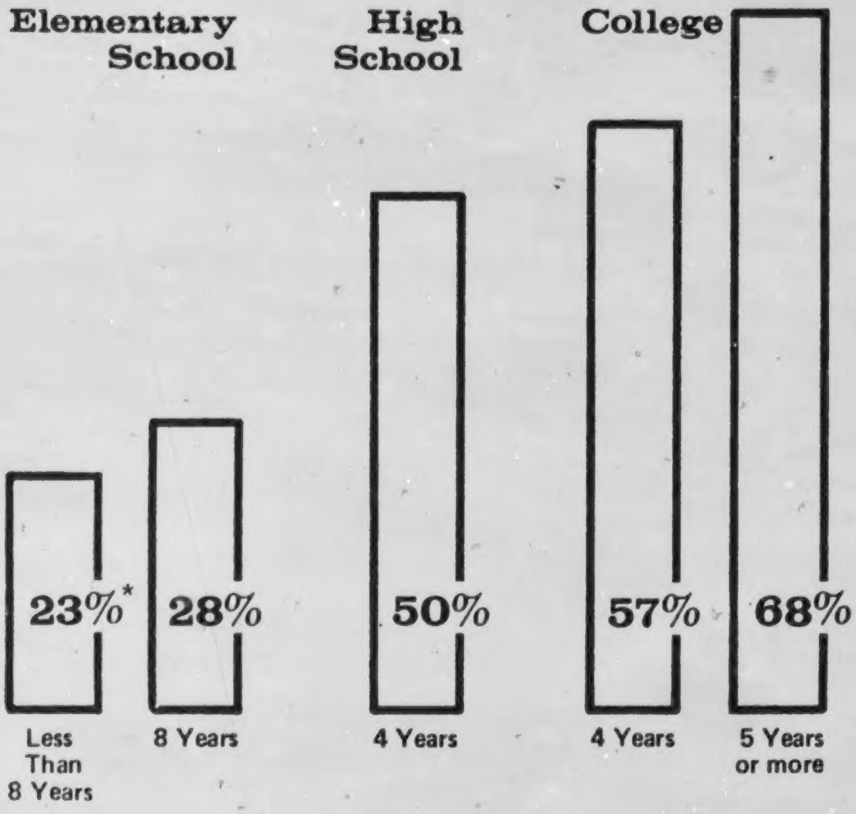
*TOTAL LABOR FORCE AS PERCENT OF TOTAL NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION IN GROUP SPECIFIED

NOTE: FOR WOMEN BORN BETWEEN 1886 AND 1915, THE FIRST AGE PLOTTED IS 14-24 YEARS. COHORTS REACH EACH AGE INTERVAL ACCORDING TO THE MIDPOINT OF THEIR BIRTH YEARS. THUS, THE COHORT BORN 1886-95 REACHED AGES 25-34 IN 1920 AND AGES 55-64 IN 1950, THE COHORT BORN 1916-25 REACHED AGES 25-34 IN 1950 AND AGES 45-54 IN 1970.

Source: Department of Commerce

Chart 8

Women's Educational Attainment and Labor Force Participation



*Percentage of Women in the Labor Force

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1973

who had completed high school and more than 2 out of 3 of those who had 5 years or more of college were workers.

Discrimination Remains a Problem

Equal opportunity is not yet a reality for women in the American world of work. For example, women work in a narrower range of occupations than men, and their concentration in this range of options helps to keep their salaries lower than men with comparable education. Women workers are concentrated in low-paying, dead-end jobs, such as textile and garment workers, service workers, clerical, sales, elementary school teaching and nursing. Hedges (1974) reports that 50 percent of women work in 21 occupations, whereas 50 percent of men work in 65 occupations.

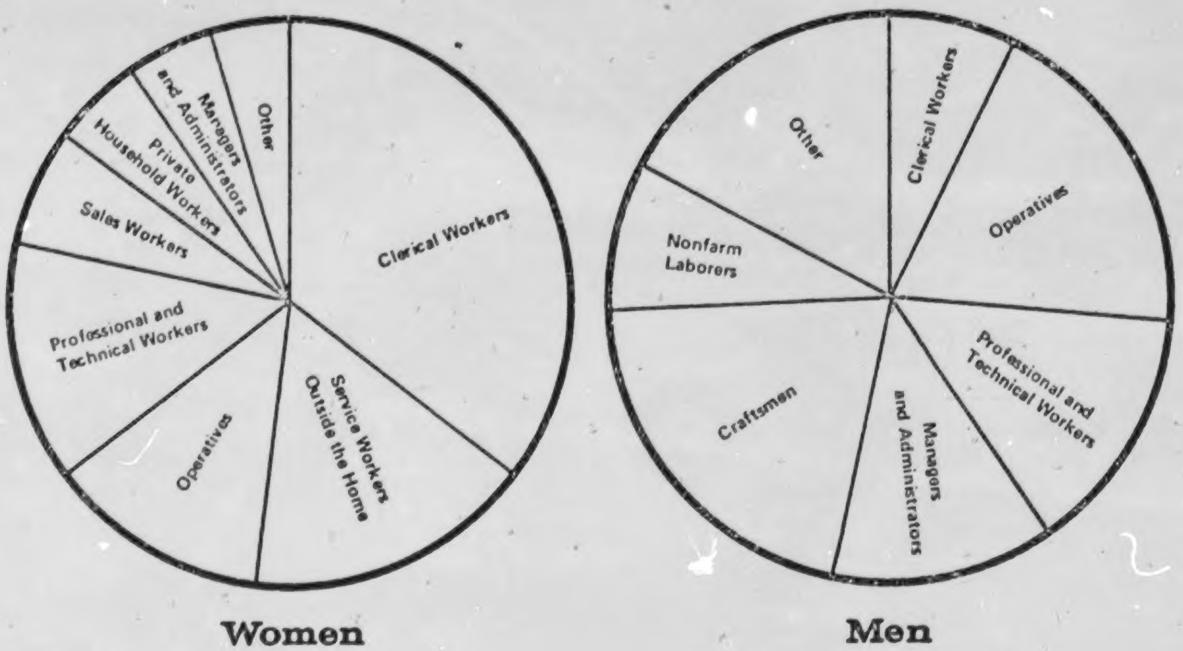
Mary Stevenson (1973) identifies this restricted range of occupations as the major reason why women with more advanced education earn significantly less than men of comparable schooling, often less than men with very limited schooling. There are ceilings on the women's opportunity list regardless of education.

Fewer women proportionately rise to the top of their chosen profession, business or trade. Although women represented 40% of the professional and technical workers in 1974, they represented less than 20% of the managers and administrators that year. The occupational distribution of women and men in 1972 is presented in Chart 9.

On the brighter side, more women hold management and administrative positions in the seventies than 20 years ago. The increase

Chart 9

Occupational Distribution of Women and Men in 1972



Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1973

of women in management outstrips their increases in the professional and service occupations.

Appendix D provides percentage breakdowns of women's participation in various occupational groups over a twenty-year period. The percentage of women in professional and technical occupations has risen less than one percent in the last twenty years; in management, the increase is almost three percent, and in service occupations, slightly less than two percent.

1973 percentage figures for women workers in nine occupational groups indicate that professional positions have increased substantially in number for women in the 1970-73 period, whereas service jobs for women have actually decreased two percent. Women in management appear to be gaining still more, increasing from 16.6 to 19 percent during this time period.

period.

Part-Time Work Arrangements Offer Flexibility

More than 12 million women now work in part-time positions (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1973), representing approximately 37 percent of the total female workforce. Some types of part-time employment may be considered traditional, for example, sales, private household service and farm labor. However, new part-time work arrangements are being developed in health fields, teaching, secretarial and other fields, particularly where shortages currently exist.

Basic types of part-time patterns include:

- Paired: Two persons may share one full-time job. Each person has equal responsibility for the job, and they may cover for each other if one is ill. Teachers, medical doctors, lawyers and radio and television news announcers are some occupations for which such arrangements have been tried.

- Shared: Two persons divide a job between them; each has responsibility for half the work. This pattern is well-suited to social workers, customer relations officers, or other positions in which there are readily divisible units of activities (clients, cases, etc.).

- Split-level: A full-time job is analyzed according to its component taks, and some tasks are assigned to one person, the balance to another person. This type of part-time work is well-suited to administrative positions which also require clerical and secretarial skills. By dividing the work between two persons at different "levels" of skill, an employer can have two employees doing one job at salary levels commensurate with the differing types of work actually performed.

- Specialist: A specialist may be employed part-time to perform a particular task. Examples include consultants in various domains, personnel interviewers, foreign language teachers, or editor of a corporation newsletter.

Advantages

Advantages to employers of part-time workers include at least the following:

1. A source of skilled workers in jobs where shortages exist.
2. A source of workers for peak activity periods, who do not have to be paid during "down" times.

Advantages to women of part-time work include:

1. Opportunity to continue work during the child-bearing years.
2. The elderly, handicapped and full-time students (men and women) are able to work the more limited number of hours they have available.

Disadvantages

Disadvantages to employers of part-time workers include:

1. The fixed costs for an employee (i.e., management, supervision,

training, welfare measures) that add up to more (proportionately) for part-time workers.

2. Sometimes part-time work leads to underutilization of a factory or other business facilities.

Disadvantages to women of part-time work:

1. Employers may expect more work to be done in shorter periods, especially in the unskilled and skilled labor categories.

2. Some part-time work does not include employee benefits, such as paid holidays, maternity leave with pay, sick leave, etc.

The Project on the Status and Education of Women recently (June, 1972) reported increasing interest in part-time employment in institutions of higher education. For example, Harvard, Stanford, Wesleyan and Princeton have adjusted their tenure rules so that part-time women (or men) professors can attain tenure and full professorial rank, as well as accrue sabbatical leave. These part-time faculty persons may obtain all employee benefits, and have the option to negotiate for full-time work commitment at some future date.

Child Care

Employers in America are now being encouraged to provide more flexible scheduling for working women to help them take care of their children's and family's needs. For example, working half-time during the years when children are nursery school age, and working six hour days when the children are in elementary school (ages 6-14) is attractive to many women.

Child care facilities and/or allowances have been made available to women in low income families and to welfare mothers through the Work Incentive Program (WIN), the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. The Women's Bureau Pamphlet No. 16 lists recent advances in providing day care for mothers.

Several industries provide day care centers at their employment site for a fee. Some of these industries are listed in Women's Bureau Bulletin 296 (1971). Of 300 university and college campuses in a recent survey, 100 were found to operate day care centers. Typically, fees were subsidized by the state board of education, which paid for staff and the facilities. Some organizations (Polaroid Corporation, for example, and the Ford Foundation) provide a child care allowance to employees with small children, this leaving mothers free to select their own child care facility.

Some Labor Unions now offer child care for members. For example, the Chicago Regional Joint Board of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America created a pilot project in 1970 in Chicago, and the United Federation of Teachers in New York City has set up 20 centers to serve both teachers and low income families in the neighborhood of the center.

The need for child care continues to increase as more mothers of small children go to work. Employers, government, unions and community agencies are working to improve the quality and quantity of day care services available to working mothers.

Women in Management

Earlier in this chapter, it was noted that there are significantly fewer women in management and administrative positions than men. However, their increased participation from 13.6 percent in 1950 to 19 percent in 1973, indicates a potentially positive trend for the next few years. Kahne (1974), commenting on this trend, suggested that the shortage of men in the 35-45 age range in the 1970's (reflecting the lower birth rates during the depression) will make women in the 35-45 age range more in demand for management positions. In addition, new federal legislation such as Revised Order No. 4 and Title VII (See Chapter V) require government contractors to *actively* recruit women for management openings, and require employers to make management *training* programs open to women employees as well as men.

The Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, reported (1973) that rapid employment growth is expected for several administrative and management occupations. For persons with master's degrees in public or municipal administration, positions such as purchasing agent, bank officer and city manager will be areas of expanding opportunity for women. The 1974-75 *Occupational Outlook Handbook* description of these occupations is also encouraging for women, especially bank officer, since the most rapid employment growth is expected in this occupation (*Occupational Outlook Quarterly*, Summer, 1974). Bank of America in California has pledged to increase its female bank officers to represent 40 percent of their total workforce by 1978.

Research (Basil, 1972; Day and Stogdill, 1972; Taylor, 1973) indicates that women managers perform equally as well as men on management competency measures. In addition, Basil (1972) found that men who had had female supervisors/managers are more positive about women in management than men who have not had this type of exposure. Such research evidence may encourage employers to promote women to supervisory positions over men when they merit such promotions. It should also encourage women to enter management fields when their interests and aptitudes incline them in that direction.

Most writers (e.g., Ginsberg & Yohalem, 1973; Kahne, 1974; Loring & Wells, 1972) agree that women's absence from management positions is largely due to the combined attitudes of women themselves and of employers. First, women do not enter management training as frequently as men, nor do they aspire as often to be managers, partly because these roles frequently require long hours, evenings and weekends, and a willingness to move about the country. This type of occupation does not fit well with women's dual role perspective. Employers themselves view women as less desirable management candidates for similar reasons (women are usually not free to travel, or work evenings and weekends to the same degree that men are).

Changing role requirements for managers and administrators, combining interpersonal skills and empathy with the skills of diplomacy and persuasion, also suggest that more women will find satisfaction and success in these roles in the future.

Women in the Crafts

Webster defines craft as "work that takes special skill, especially with the hands." The skilled trades have been generally classified and synonymously referred to as the craft occupations. In the U.S. Bureau of the Census classification, blue collar workers include the crafts and kindred workers. Kindred workers are primarily supervisors, and inspectors of the persons performing the craft directly. Supervisors and inspectors in this category represent approximately 25 percent of the persons classified by the Census in the group "Craft and Kindred Workers."

Appendix F presents data for women employed in the crafts and certain related occupations for the years 1960 and 1970. Most of these 70 or more occupations listed here are described in detail in the current issue of the Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1974-75 Edition under four clusters: Industrial Production and Related Occupations; Construction Occupations; Mechanics and Repairmen (sic.) and Occupations in Transportation activities. More than 350 occupations are defined as crafts in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1965).

Hedges and Bemis (1974) report that more women have been entering the crafts each year since 1970. The period from 1900 to 1960 was a static period for women entering the crafts. The participation of women during that period fluctuated from 2 to 3 percent, except for the 1940's during World War II, when participation rates reached five percent. In 1974, women's participation was up to five percent, and 12 percent of those enrolled in trade schools were women (Hedges & Bemis, 1974). Table 10 gives a selected set of data from Appendix F, showing women's increasing participation in skilled trades formerly dominated entirely by men. Hedges and Bemis (1974) noted that the job classes baker, bookbinder, decorator, furrier, optician, lens grinder and tailor now have more than 15 percent participation by women.

Why Are More Women Entering the Crafts?

Why, after 60 years or more, are women beginning to increase their participation in craft occupations? Several reasons are given by writers such as Hedges and Bemis (1974); Women's Bureau (1974); and Raphael (1974). The following were most frequently cited: 1) physical strength is becoming a less important factor for many skilled trades because of automation; 2) women have become more aware of the good salaries these jobs provide; and 3) legislation has helped reduce discrimination.

Many Women Have the Necessary Aptitudes for Craft Occupations

Two recent studies have compared craft-related aptitudes of men and women. Durkin (1972) reported that the Human Engineer Laboratory of the Johnson O'Connor Research Foundation found no significant sex differences in the majority of aptitude and knowledge areas they studied. Droege (1967) presents data from the United States Employment Service, gathered over a period of years by General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) administration to men and women. His data also reveal little in the way of significant differences.

Table 10

Women Increase Participation in Skilled Trades Formerly Dominated by Men

Job Category	Participation 1960	1970
Aircraft Mechanic	1.5	2.9
Auto Mechanic	.4	1.4
Blacksmith	.5	2.4
Boilermaker	.2	1.3
Cabinetmaker	1.3	5.1
Carpenter	.4	1.3
Dental Laboratory Technician	4.3	22.7
Electrician	.7	1.8
Machinist	1.3	3.1
Metal Rollers and Finisher	4.2	6.4
Metal Tool and Die Setter	.6	2.6
Motion Picture Projectionist	2.2	4.2
Painter	1.9	4.1
Printing Press Operator	5.8	8.5
Sign Painter	4.6	8.5
Stonecutter	2.0	7.0
Telephone Installer and Repairer	2.0	3.5

Source: Hedges & Bemis (1974)

It has long been known that women often excel in the finger coordination and eye/hand coordination required for many of the skilled trades. Physical strength requirements were sometimes a deterrent in the past, but in many trades physical demands actually are no higher than for housework (See Dictionary of Occupational Titles, 1965, Worker Trait Requirements, Vol. 2). Automation is reducing this requirement in others (Hedges & Bemis, 1974).

Are Women Interested in Craft Occupations?

Interest, or motivation, seems to be the main stumbling block to women's increased entry into the crafts in numbers proportional to their actual aptitude. The image of the craft occupations are often ones of dirty repairmen, construction workers risking life and limb on high scaffolding, or of auto mechanics under the body of a car. These images seem "unfeminine." However, women's interest in and acceptance of the crafts recently has increased, as evidenced by their increasing employment in and training for these occupations.

Some of the recent increase in interest in the crafts may be related to job function-related personal factors. A person employed in a skilled trade is more autonomous, is outdoors more, may have a sense of achievement (a chance to work with the hands and produce a product) and, of course, the pay is better than for many clerical or other traditional "women's jobs."

Social changes in sex role expectancy also have made the skilled trades more inviting to many women in the 1970's. A shared approach to marriage and the family has become a more common view (Hedges & Bemis, 1974), making it easier for women with families to work -- they can expect more help with the groceries, cleaning, cooking, child-care, etc. The year or two of required training or apprenticeship to the trades is more feasible with this changed role perspective.

Employment opportunities in the crafts for the 70's have been projected by the Women's Bureau (1973) (See Table 11).

Women in the Professions

The proportion of women in the professions compared with the proportion of women working has varied considerably during the past hundred years (Blitz, 1974). Chart 12 presents relevant data, indicating that the proportion of women working has grown, but the proportion of women in the professions reached a high point in 1930, and declined thereafter, until about a decade ago when it began to increase again. Today, the proportion of women in the labor force is almost equal to the proportion of women in the professions, as compared with men.

Historically, the proportion of women in the professions compared with women in other fields has been high. In 1972, this proportion was almost identical to that for men.

The demand for professional workers during the next decade (through 1985) is expected to be strong (Women's Bureau, 1973). Many professions have both a shortage of trained workers and relatively-

Table 11

Craft Occupations in Which a Rapid Employment Increase is Expected for the Seventies

	Total employment, 1970	Women as percent of total	Average annual openings to 1980
Air conditioning, refrigeration, and heating mechanic	115,000	**	7,900
Aircraft mechanic	140,000	**	6,000
Appliance serviceman[*]	220,000	**	11,000
Automobile mechanic	610,000	**	23,300
Business machine serviceman	80,000	**	6,000
Electrician (construction)	190,000	**	12,000
Industrial machinery repairman	180,000	**	9,000
Instrument maker–mechanical	8,000	**	400
Instrument repairman	95,000	**	5,900
Operating engineer (construction machinery operator)	310,000	**	15,000
Plumber and pipefitter	350,000	**	20,000
Television and radio service technician	132,000	**	4,500
Truck and bus mechanic	115,000	**	5,200

**Data are not available.

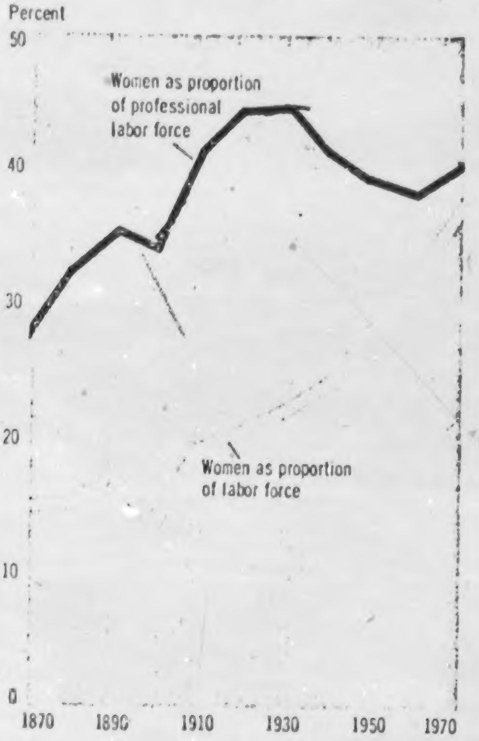
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1973

---

[*] Please note that this and other tables in the Sourcebook were prepared before occupational titles had been revised to remove sex bias.

Chart 12

Proportion of Women in the Labor Force and in the Professions, United States, 1870-1970



Source: Blitz, 1974

few women currently employed in them. Women are thus encouraged to enter nontraditional professions where the employment opportunities are good. A changing social role for women in the home is now making it more feasible for women to enter professions which demand long periods of training and have exacting time requirements during employment. Affirmative action requirements, and legal sanctions against discrimination in employment, will also contribute to the increasing entry and participation of women in nontraditional professions. Examples such as women engineers and doctors in Russia, and women dentists in Finland, to cite a few, have also contributed to the American woman's increasing entry into nontraditional fields (Galenson, 1973).

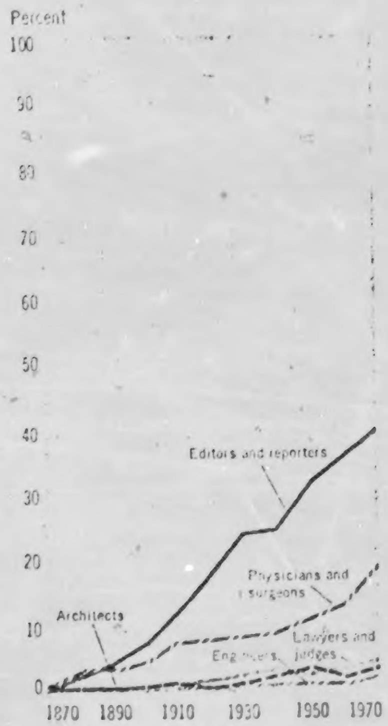
Opportunities Increasing in Nontraditional Professions

Nontraditional professions for women include engineering, law, medicine, dentistry, mathematical sciences, social work, clergy, pharmacy, and architecture. Blitz (1974) presented data on the participation of women in these occupations from 1870-1970 (Chart 13). Trend data presented by the Women's Bureau (1973) indicate that for all but law and Protestant clergy, these professions will offer good employment opportunities. Table 14 provides these data. The employment outlook for lawyers is predicted to be one of "keen competition" for salaried positions and "moderate" for lawyers who establish their own practice (Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Summer, 1974). The employment outlook for the Protestant clergy is predicted to be keenly competitive as well.

Not only are opportunities in several nontraditional fields good, but in some of them women have already begun to increase their

Chart 13

In 1870, Women Played a Very Small Part in Some Professions[1]



---

[1] Similar trend lines are indicated for social workers and clergymen; photographers; designers and draftsmen; pharmacists; and dentists.

Source: Blitz, 1974

Table 14

Professional Occupations in Which a Large Number of Openings are Expected Annually

	Total employment, 1970	Women as percent of total	Average annual openings to 1980
Accountant	491,000	20	31,200
Architect	33,000	4	2,700
Chemist	137,000	7	9,400
Civil engineer	185,000	*	10,000
Dentist	103,000	2	5,400
Dietitian	30,000	90	2,300
Economist	33,000	10	2,300
Electrical engineer	235,000	*	12,200
Industrial engineer	125,000	*	8,000
Life scientist	180,000	10	9,900
Mathematician	75,000	10	4,600
Medical record librarian	13,000	***	1,500
Medical technologist[1]			
Personnel worker	160,000	25	9,100
Physician	305,000	7	22,000
Physicist	48,000	4	3,500
Psychologist	40,000	25	3,700
Public relations worker	75,000	25	4,400
Recreation worker	13,500	50	1,700
Registered nurse	700,000	99	69,000
Rehabilitation counselor	13,000	30	1,600
School counselor	54,000	**	5,200
Social worker	170,000	**	18,000
Speech pathologist and audiologist	22,000	75	2,200
Statistician	24,000	33	1,400
Veterinarian	25,000	2	1,500

---

[1] Included with medical laboratory workers on page 4.

*Majority are men.

**Data are not available.

***Majority are women.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1973

Table 15

Participation of Women in Several Non-Traditional Professions

Field	1965	1972
Medicine	8%	17
Engineering	.4	3
Dentistry	.7	3
Pharmacy*	1.4	2.5
Physical Sciences	-	5
Law	5	16
Draftsmen	-	4
Architects	5	11
Veterinarian	7	19

*Figures are for Seniors in Training Institutions only

Source: Parrish, 1974

participation. In medicine, women have increased from less than 10 percent of the workforce in 1940, to 20 percent in 1970. Table 15 presents data for women's participation in other nontraditional professions.

Professions in Search of Workers

Doctors. Hedges (1970) reports that the medical profession is obtaining more than 33 percent of its physicians from foreign countries annually. At least 25 percent of this need is predicted to continue to be filled through 1985 by foreigners, if more Americans do not enter medical school.

Part of the problem, of course, is lack of training facilities. Applicants for medical schools are three times as many annually as the number who can be accepted. However, the demonstrated need for more physicians places qualified women applicants to medical school at some advantage under the present Title IX legislation, making it illegal to discriminate on the basis of sex. The previous practice (Hedges, 1970) of accepting the same proportion of male and female applicants, discriminated against females, because fewer of them applied. For example, typically, if 200 males applied and 50 females, and 25 males were accepted (12.5%) then six females were accepted even if more of the 50 applicants were better qualified than some of the males accepted. This practice is no longer legal.

In addition to legal changes making medicine a more favorable option for women, many medical training institutions have accepted "part-time" residencies, now making it possible for a woman doctor to raise a family and still complete her medical training. Scholarship aid from the Educational Assistance Act (HPEAA) providing up to $2,500 annually for needy qualified medical students is reducing the financial burden of medical training as well. The Russian models -- a majority of female doctors -- is an added incentive for women thinking about a career in medicine.

Dentists. Hedges (1970) reports a continuing need for trained dentists in America. The Women's Bureau (1973) indicated the need to be for 5,400 annually through 1980, a number which far outstrips the expected number of annual graduates (3,800). A dental practice fits well with a woman's need to combine responsibilities of home and career, by offering the opportunity to establish an office at home, and to restrict office hours as needed. In several countries other than the U.S., women are in a majority among dentists (Finland, Lithuania, Russia, Greece [Hedges, 1970]). The training period also is shorter for dentists than for physicians by about two years. Scholarship funds are available from HPEAA (up to $2,500 annually to qualified students).

Engineers and Scientists. Women in the U.S. have traditionally trained for the biological sciences much more frequently than for engineering and the physical sciences (such as chemistry, physics). In Russia, 32 percent of the engineers are women (Galenson, 1973), and 20 percent of the professors of physics and mathematics are female. In the U.S. in 1972, women represented three percent of the engineers and five percent of the physical scientists, yet the need for engineers and scientists is high (Hedges, 1970; Women's Bureau, 1973). Environmental pollution, urban deterioration and depletion of natural resources make for increasing demands in these fields.

Two-thirds as many women as men have engineering aptitude, according to a study of 11th grade students made by the U.S. Department of Labor (Hedges, 1970). Astin (1974) indicated that girls gifted in mathematics frequently graduate level education in this field. Many of these girls do not enter scientific occupations as present, and could be encouraged to do so.

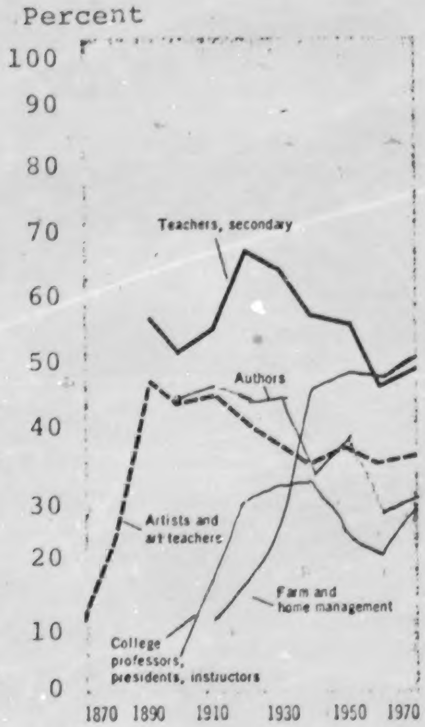
Opportunities in Less Traditional Professions Looks Favorable

Blitz (1974) indicated that for some of the less traditional professions for women, such as entertainer, accountant, auditor, author, artist, college professor and high school teacher, there is no clear upward or downward trend in participation by women. Table 16 illustrates the participation of women in some of these fields for the period 1870-1970.

The job market for secondary teachers, college professors and entertainers is expected to be tight for the next decade (*Occupational Outlook Quarterly*, Summer, 1974). However, the job market for accountants (See Table 14) is predicted as "good" (DOL, 1974) and for authors as "moderate" and "favorable" for technical writers. Counselors are encouraged to consult the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, 1974-75 Edition, and the *Occupational Outlook Handbook in Brief* presented in the *Occupational Outlook Quarterly*, Summer 1974, for more detailed trend information on related specialties. The trend data presented here should encourage counselors to caution about the keen competition for jobs in high school or college teaching and in the entertainment professions. On the other hand, counselors might well encourage interested women to

Chart 16

Women in the Professions, 1870-1970
(lower levels of participation)



Source: Blitz, 1974

enter the accounting or technical writing fields.

Opportunities in Traditional Roles Continue

Women in the professions have traditionally swelled the ranks of nurses, elementary school teacher and librarian (Table 17). Over 50 percent of women in the professions are in one of these three fields. Although large numbers of openings are not predicted soon in these three fields, in general, certain specializations within each of them are expected to expand.

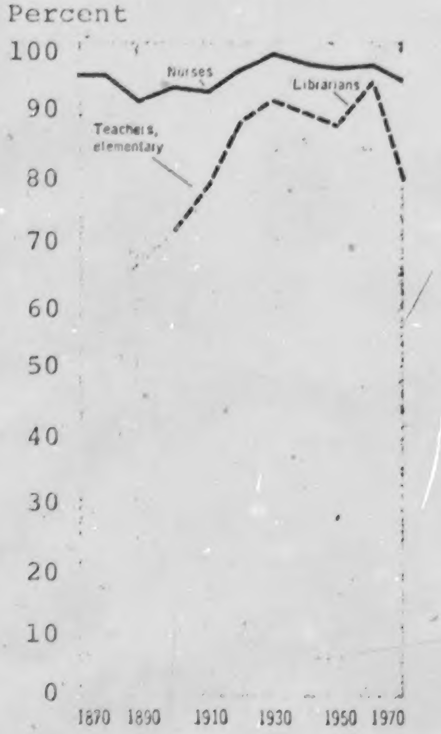
In elementary school teaching, specialists in special education, reading, and individual instruction (U.S. Department of Labor, 1974) may continue to enjoy ease of employment.

For librarians, there is a growing demand for legal records librarian and information specialists to help executives in business and management keep abreast of new developments (DOL, 1974). Greater use of computers to store and retrieve information will contribute to increased demand for these information specialists and for library automation specialists.

In the nursing field, employment opportunities are expected to remain good through 1985 for registered nurses, nursing aides and licensed practical nurses (DOL, 1974). Expanding opportunities in related health occupations such as physical therapist and medical technician are also expected. The Women's Bureau (1973) presented data (See Table 18) on employment opportunities for the health occupations.

Chart 17

Women in the Professions, 1870-1970
(higher levels of participation)



Source: Blitz, 1974

Table 18

Health Workers Needed In The Next Decade

Occupation	Total employment, 1970	Women as percent of total	Average annual openings to 1980
Dental assistant	91,000	***	9,200
Dental hygienist	16,000	***	3,100
Electrocardiographic (EKG) technician	9,500	***	1,600
Medical assistant	175,000	80	20,000
Medical laboratory workers:			
Medical laboratory assistant Medical laboratory technician Medical technologist	110,000	80 to 90	13,500
Radiologic technologist	80,000	66	7,700
Electroencephalographic (EEG) technician	3,000	***	950
Inhalation therapist	10,000	**	2,100
Occupational therapy assistant	6,000	***	1,300
Optometric assistant	5,000	***	300
Physical therapy assistant	10,000	50	2,200
Surgical technician	25,000	***	2,600

**Data are not available.

***Majority are women.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1973

Earnings of Women Today and Tomorrow

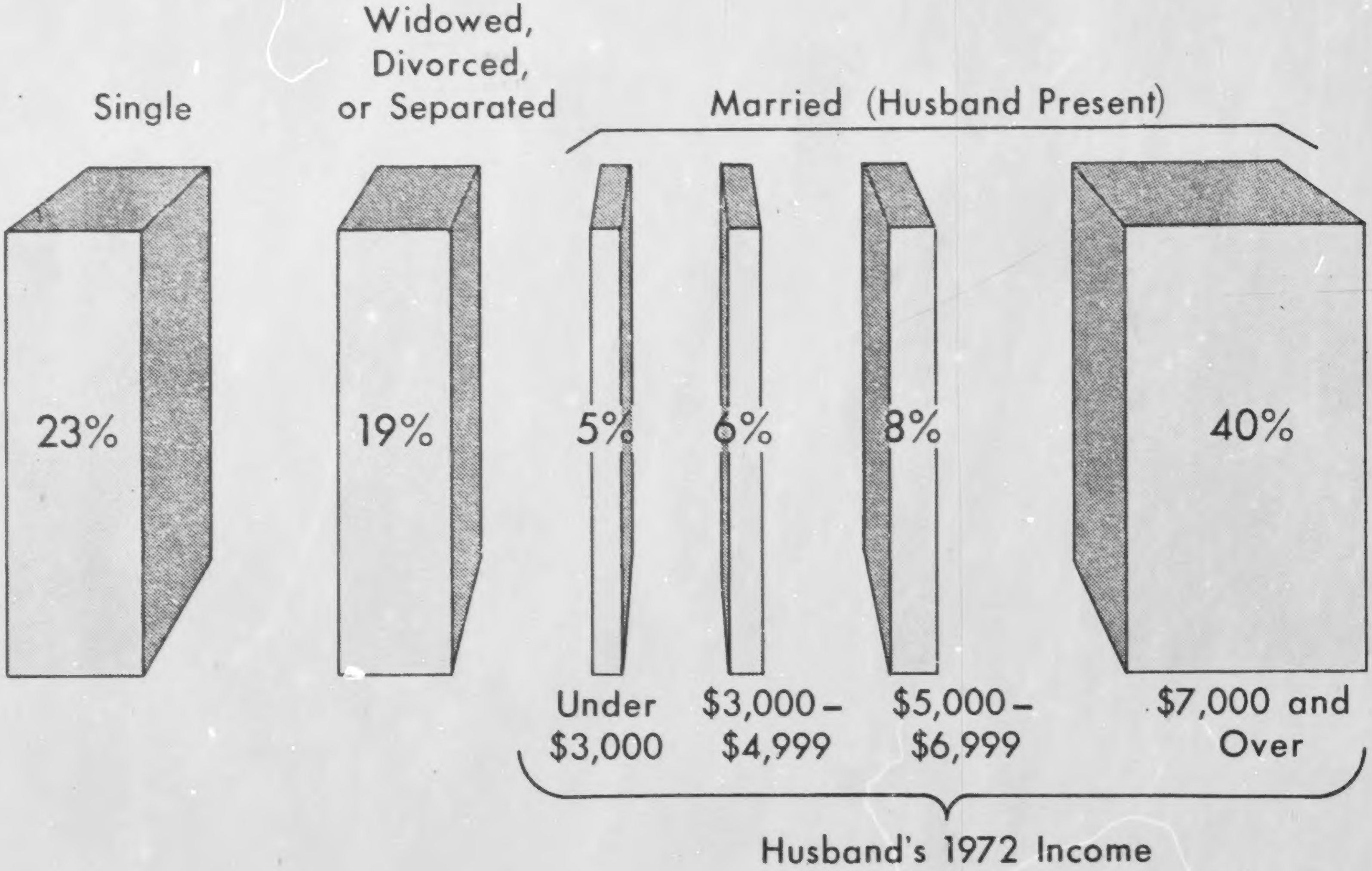
Women who work full-time year round, on the average earn about 60 percent of the salary earned by similarly employed men. The gap in earnings between women and men has varied only slightly in the past 20 years. Figures obtained since the Equal Pay for Equal Work legislation went into effect in 1972 are not available nationally. However, isolated instances suggest that the gap may indeed narrow in the next decade. This section reports data on the salary differential between men and women and highlights some of the reasons for this differential.

The attitudes of women, men, employers, fellow employees, society in general, mitigate against women receiving equal pay for equal work. Some of these attitudes have been identified by the Women's Bureau and countered with the hard facts of the present reality. Society can no longer claim that women's place is in the home, for example, when 42 percent of working women depend for their livelihood on their own earning power (Chart 19). The following presents a series of "myths" and "realities" (Women's Bureau, 1974):

Chart 19

Most Women Work Because of Economic Need

(WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, BY MARITAL STATUS, MARCH 1973)



Source: Prepared by the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, from data published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor.

THE MYTH AND THE REALITY

The Myth	The Reality
A woman's place is in the home.	Homemaking in itself is no longer a full-time job for most people. Goods and services formerly produced in the home are now commercially available; laborsaving devices have lightened or eliminated much work around the home.
	Today more than half of all women between 18 and 64 years of age are in the labor force, where they are making a substantial contribution to the Nation's economy. Studies show that 9 out of 10 girls will work outside the home at some time in their lives.
Women aren't seriously attached to the labor force; they work only for extra pocket money.	Of the nearly 34 million women in the labor force in March 1973, nearly half were working because of pressing economic need. They were either single, widowed, divorced, or separated or had husbands whose incomes were less than $3,000 a year. Another 4.7 million had husbands with incomes between $3,000 and $7,000.[1]
Women are out ill more than male workers; they cost the company more.	A recent Public Health Service study shows little difference in the absentee rate due to illness or injury: 5.6 days a year for women compared with 5.2 for men.

---

[1] The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimate for a low standard of living for an urban family of four was $7,386 in autumn 1971. This estimate is for a family consisting of an employed husband aged 38, a wife not employed outside the home, an 8-year-old girl, and a 13-year-old boy.

Women don't work as long or as regularly as their male coworkers; their training is costly—and largely wasted.	A declining number of women leave work for marriage and children. But even among those who do leave, a majority return when their children are in school. Even with a break in employment, the average woman worker has a worklife expectancy of 25 years as compared with 43 years for the average male worker. The single woman averages 45 years in the labor force. Studies on labor turnover indicate that net differences for men and women are generally small. In manufacturing industries the 1968 rates of accessions per 100 employees were 4.4 for men and 5.3 for women; the respective separation rates were 4.4 and 5.2.
Married women take jobs away from men; in fact, they ought to quit those jobs they now hold.	There were 19.8 million married women (husbands present) in the labor force in March 1973; the number of unemployed men was 2.5 million. If all the married women stayed home and unemployed men were placed in their jobs, there would be 17.3 million unfilled jobs. Moreover, most unemployed men do not have the education or the skill to qualify for many of the jobs held by women, such as secretaries, teachers, and nurses.
Women should stick to "women's jobs" and shouldn't compete for "men's jobs."	Jobs, with extremely rare exceptions, are sexless. Tradition rather than job content has led to labeling certain jobs as women's and others as men's. In measuring 22 inherent aptitudes and knowledge areas, a research laboratory found that there is no sex difference in 14, women excel in 6, and men excel in 2.

Women don't want responsibility on the job; they don't want promotions or job changes which add to their load.	Relatively few women have been offered positions of responsibility. But when given these opportunities, women, like men, do cope with job responsibilities in addition to personal or family responsibilities. In 1973, 4.7 million women held professional and technical jobs, another 1.6 million worked as nonfarm managers and administrators. Many others held supervisory jobs at all levels in offices and factories.
The employment of mothers leads to juvenile delinquency.	Studies show that many factors must be considered when seeking the causes of juvenile delinquency. Whether or not a mother is employed does not appear to be a determining factor. These studies indicate that it is the quality of a mother's care rather than the time consumed in such care which is of major significance.
Men don't like to work for women supervisors.	Most men who complain about women supervisors have never worked for a woman. In one study where at least three-fourths of both the male and female respondents (all executives) had worked with women managers, their evaluation of women in management was favorable. On the other hand, the study showed a traditional/cultural bias among those who reacted unfavorably to women as managers. In another survey in which 41 percent of the reporting firms indicated that they hired women executives, none rated their performance as unsatisfactory; 50 percent rated them adequate; 42 percent rated them the same as their predecessors; and 8 percent rated them better than their predecessors.

These attitudes of employers and employees toward women workers will change slowly, partly as the facts become more visible. A further presentation of these facts follows, suggesting that much effort will be needed to close the gap in earnings.

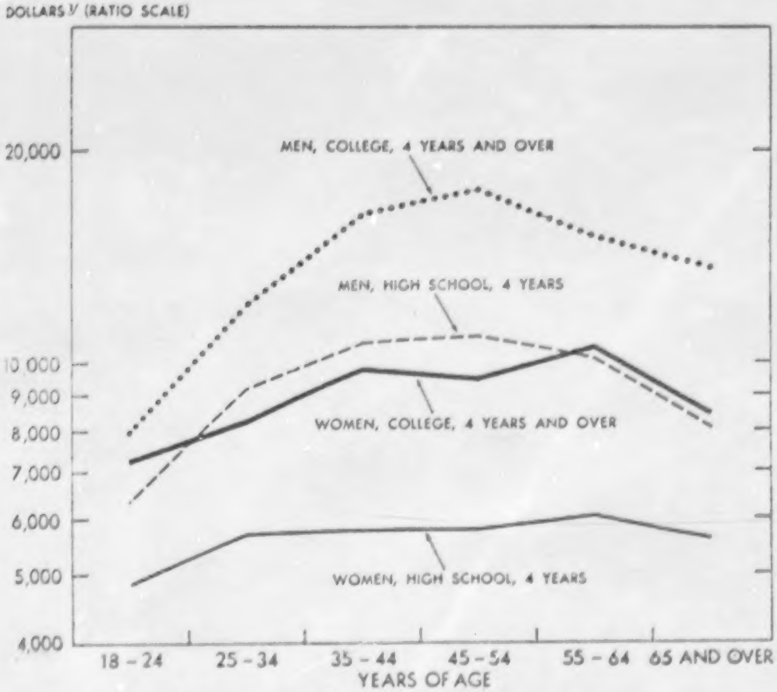
Data for 1959 and 1969, for men and women, indicate that the gap in salaries, overall, had decreased somewhat (4.8%) during this decade. The greatest decrease was obtained in the Western states, and overall for single, divorced or widowed women, and for self-employed women over 35. The salary gap actually widened for married women with spouse present in the home, government workers over 35 years of age, and self-employed workers under 35. Salary data for 1962 and 1972 for minority and white men and women indicate that men earned more than women whether they were white or minority, and that white women earned more than minority women in both 1962 and 1972. These data also indicate that the salaries of white men overall were increasing more rapidly than the salaries of the other subcategories presented.

Salary Differences by Level of Education

Charts 20 and 21 present data on the earnings of men and women by educational level, for 1971 and 1970, respectively. Chart 20 indicates that the salary gap varies somewhat by educational level. The gap at either end is somewhat smaller for persons with 5 years or more of college and for persons with less than eight years of elementary school education.

Chart 20

Annual Income by Age, for Male and Female High School and College Graduates



1/ MEDIAN INCOME OF FULL-TIME, YEAR ROUND WORKERS, 1971.

SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

Source: Economic Report of the President, 1973

Table 21

Median Income in 1970 of Full-Time Year-Round Workers,
by Sex and Years of School Completed
(Persons 25 years of age and over)

Years of school completed	Median income Women	 Men	Women's median income as percent of men's
Elementary school:			
Less than 8 years-------	$3,798	$6,043	62.8
8 years-----------------	4,181	7,535	55.5
High School:			
1-3 years---------------	4,659	8,514	54.7
4 years-----------------	5,580	9,567	58.3
College:			
1-3 years --------------	6,604	11,183	59.1
4 years ----------------	8,156	13,264	61.5
5 years or more---------	9,581	14,747	65.0

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 80, 1970.

Salary Differences by Field of Occupation

The gap in salary between men and women is somewhat less for professional and technical workers than for other fields, and the gap is widest for sales occupations. Table 20 presents salary data for 1970 by field.

It has been suggested that salary differences for men and women are less at the beginning of employment, but that fewer promotions for women eventuate in ultimately lower salaries for women. Table 23 presents beginning salary data for 1970-71 for six professional fields, indicating there are differences in beginning salaries as well. However, it should be noted that some of these differences were smaller in 1971 than in 1970(for accounting, engineering and liberal arts occupations).

The Equal Pay Act of 1963, as amended in 1972, has resulted in several successful court actions, coordinated with actions of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) and the Office of Federal Contract Compliance in the Department of Labor. A brief list of successful court actions in 1973 follows:

1. American Telephone and Telegraph Co. paid $7.7 million in back pay to more than 3,000 women employees.
2. Overall, 30,000 employees received $18 million in back pay in 1973, and most of them were women (see CACSW, 1973).
3. Corning Glass Co. paid $600,000 to 960 women in back pay in 1973.
4. Sixty J. J. Fields retail stores and Loveman's department stores were ordered to pay women selling women's clothing the same wage rates as men selling men's clothing by an appellate ruling.

In the first six months of 1974, the amount of income restored to employees under the Equal Pay Act was twice that for the comparable period during 1973.

Table 22

Median Wage or Salary Income of Full-Time Year-Round Workers, by Sex and Selected Major Occupation Group, 1970

Major occupation group	Median wage or salary income		Women's median wage or salary income as percent of men's
	Women	Men	
Professional and technical workers	$7,878	$11,806	66.7
Nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors	6,834	12,117	56.4
Clerical workers	5,551	8,617	64.4
Sales workers	4,188	9,790	42.8
Operatives	4,510	7,623	59.2
Service workers (except private household)	3,953	6,955	56.8

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 80, 1970.

Table 23

Average Starting Monthly Salary for June 1970 and 1971 College Graduates, by Sex and Selected Field

Field	1971		1970	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Accounting	$793	$845	$746	$832
Chemistry	812	826	765	806
Economics, finance	1/700	768	700	718
Engineering	884	885	844	872
Liberal arts	688	690	631	688
Mathematics, statistics	776	806	746	773

1/Average based on only six companies planning to employ women.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, 1974

Women do work in a small number of occupations, which pay less and often use skills they learned in the home. In January, 1973, most industries paying average weekly salaries of less than $100 were dominated by women (Waldman & McEaddy, 1974). The weekly salary for all industries averaged $130. Table 24 presents weekly earnings for over 30 industries, demonstrating that knitting mills, apparel and other textile products, retail sales (other than motor vehicle dealers), services in hotels, tourist courts and motels, laundries and drycleaning plants, all female intensive industries, paid less than $100 weekly.

Commenting on the fact that women are concentrated in occupations which use the skills learned in the home, Wilensky (1968) describes these skills as:

> (1) traditional housewive's tasks - cooking, cleaning, and canning; (2) few or no strenuous physical activities and hazards; (3) patience, waiting, routine (receptionists, sales workers, telephone operators); (4) rapid use of hands and fingers such as in office machine operating and electrical assembling; (5) a distinctive welfare or cultural orientation; (6) contact with young children; and (7) sex appeal.

Oppenheimer (1968) adds other characteristics of women's work. They are a source of cheap labor. Forty-two percent of all women workers are in occupations which have higher than average education levels, but lower than average median earnings. To sum up, the result of crowding women into a few occupations and virtually barring them from others is that women's pay is thereby reduced and men's pay is thereby increased (Stevenson, 1973).

Why Are Women's Salaries Lower Than Men's?

Experts identify two major sources of the discrepancies in salary between men and women. The first is that the social conditioning

Table 24

Gross hours and Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers[1] on Private Nonagricultural Payrolls, Selected Industries, January 1973

Industry	Average earnings		Average hours	
	Weekly	Hourly	Weekly	Overtime
Total private	$138	$3.77	36.8	—
Mining	190	4.60	41.3	—
Contract construction	223	6.42	34.8	—
Manufacturing	159	3.98	40.0	3.5
Durable goods	173	4.23	41.0	3.9
Fabricated metal products	169	4.13	41.0	3.9
Machinery, except electrical	188	4.44	42.4	4.5
Electrical equipment and supplies	153	3.80	40.3	3.0
Transportation equipment	210	5.00	41.9	4.8
Miscellaneous manufacturing	124	3.24	38.4	2.4
Nondurable goods	140	3.61	38.7	3.2
Food and kindred products	149	3.75	39.8	3.8
Canned, cured, and frozen foods	119	3.15	37.8	3.0
Confectionery and related products	125	3.29	37.9	2.2
Textile mill products	112	2.87	39.1	3.9
Knitting mills	99	2.76	35.7	2.4
Apparel and other textile products	93	2.72	34.1	1.2
Chemical and allied products	181	4.36	41.5	3.5
Leather and leather products	103	2.77	37.2	1.9
Transportation and public utilities	196	4.87	40.2	–
Telephone communication	175	4.47	39.1	–
Switchboard operating employees[2]	126	3.65	34.4	–
Line construction employees[3]	228	5.23	43.6	-
Wholesale and retail trade	107	3.11	34.5	—
Wholesale trade	158	3.99	39.5	—
Retail trade	91	2.78	32.9	—
Retail general merchandise	82	2.61	31.3	—
Food stores	102	3.20	32.0	—
Apparel and accessory stores	78	2.54	30.6	—
Eating and drinking places[4]	62	2.08	29.7	—
Motor vehicle dealers	152	3.77	40.2	—
Drug stores and proprietary stores	82	2.67	30.7	—
Finance, insurance, and real estate	131	3.54	37.0	—
Banking	114	3.07	37.0	—
Services	111	3.27	33.9	—
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels[4]	76	2.35	32.3	—
Laundries and drycleaning plants	87	2.50	34.7	—
Hospitals	108	3.15	34.3	—

[1] Data relate to production workers in mining and manufacturing; to construction workers in contract construction; and to nonsupervisory workers in wholesale and retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; transportation and public utilities; and services.

[2] Data relate to employees in such occupations in the telephone industry as switchboard operators; service assistants; operating room instructors; and pay station attendants. In 1971, such employees made up 29 percent of the total number of nonsupervisory employees in establishments reporting hours and earnings data.

[3] Data relate to employees in such occupations in the telephone industry as central office craft workers; installation and exchange repair craft workers; line, cable, and conduit craft workers; and laborers.

[4] Money payments only; tips not included.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1974 of our society (Fuchs, 1974; Waldman & McEaddy, 1974; Stevenson, 1973; Economic Report of the President, 1974) is such that men are expected to work in certain occupations and women in others. The second, related to the first, is that, as a result of sex role expectations, women tend to "crowd" (Stevenson, 1973) into a small number of occupations which pay less and use skills they learned in the home (i.e., elementary teaching, textile industry and nursing. Only after considerable time -- perhaps by the end of the 1970's -- can the effect of the Equal Pay Act (1972) be assessed. Court actions to date do predict favorable outcomes.

Minority Women*: Their Participation in the Work Force

Until very recently, minority women workers were earning considerably less than white women with the same amount of education. In 1974, however, both the educational gap and the earnings gap show signs of closing (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1974).

The area of greatest discrepancy between black and white women workers lies in teenage employment and unemployment patterns. Black teenage girls, ages 16-18 who were high school dropouts or high school graduates, were listed as 34.5 percent unemployed in 1973 (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1974), in contrast to 14 percent for white girls in the same category.

Earnings Differentials Narrow

Minority women, like white women, earn less than minority or white men. However, the differences between minority and white women's earnings is narrowing. Minority women earned 70 percent as much as white women in 1960. In 1972, minority women earned 87 percent as much as white women.

---

*Data given here are for all non-white races.

Educational Differentials Narrow

In 1973, census figures indicated that 59 percent of minority women were at least high school graduates. Ten percent had completed four or more years of college. Comparable figures for white women were 73 and 12 percent, respectively. In 1959, the median number of years of education for minority women was almost three years lower than for 1973. Figures are presented in Table 25 on median years of education for minority and white men and women.

More Minority Mothers Work than White Mothers

Sixty-one percent of minority women with children ages 6-17 were working in 1973, as compared to 52 percent of white women. Forty-nine percent of minority women with children under six years of age were working compared to 32 percent for white women. These figures, along with figures for mothers whose husbands are not present in the home (compared to mothers whose husbands are living with them) are presented in Table 26.

Proportionately more minority than white women heads of households have incomes below the poverty level ($2,109 in 1972). Table 27 presents data in support of this statement.

Seventy-two percent of the minority mothers, with no husband present in the home, who did not work during 1972 had incomes below the low income level. The comparable percentage for white women was 36 percent.

Table 25

Median Years of School Completed by Workers, by Sex and Race, March 1959 and 1973 1/

Date	Women		Men	
	Minority	White	Minority	White
March 1959	9.4	12.2	8.3	11.9
March 1973	12.3	12.5	12.0	12.5

1/ Persons 16 years of age and over in 1973 but 18 years and over in 1959.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1974

Table 26

Percent of Mothers in Labor Force, by Race, Age of Children, and Marital Status of Mother, March 1973

Race and age of children	All ever-married	Married (husband present)	Other marital status
Minority:			
Total	55.0	57.1	50.9
Children 6 to 17 years	61.4	61.1	61.9
Children under 6 years	48.6	53.4	37.7
White:			
Total	42.6	40.2	63.6
Children 6 to 17 years	51.8	49.1	70.7
Children under 6 years	32.2	30.5	51.4

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1974

Table 27

Work Experience in 1972 of Women Heads of Families With Incomes Below the Low-Income Level, by Race

Race	Total	No work experience	Worked during year	Worked year round full time
	Number of poor families headed by women			
Total	2,158,000	1,336,000	822,000	149,000
Minority	1,023,000	650,000	373,000	84,000
White	1,135,000	686,000	449,000	65,000
	As percent of all families headed by women			
Total	32.7	48.0	21.5	7.2
Minority	52.9	72.1	36.1	16.4
White	24.3	36.5	16.1	4.2

1/ The low-income or poverty level is based on the Social Security Administration's poverty thresholds, adjusted annually in accordance with the Department of Labor's Consumer Price Index. Classified as poor in 1972 were those nonfarm households where total money income was less than $2,109 for an unrelated individual; $2,724 for a couple; and $4,275 for a family of four. (The poverty level for farm families is set at 85 percent of the corresponding level for nonfarm families.)

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1974

Thirty-two percent of minority mothers are heads of household; in contrast, the figure for white mothers is only 13 percent (See Table 28). Participation in the labor force of mothers with husbands present in the home increased by 19 percent during the decade 1963-73. This increase was greater for mothers with children under six years of age than for those with older children. This increase is consistent with the trend observed for women in general in the U.S. during this decade.

Minority High School Dropouts Have Higher Unemployment Rate

The unemployment rate for all female high school dropouts was 24.9 percent in 1972. About 18 percent of these dropouts were minority females; their unemployment rate was 42.4 percent. Unemployment for minority high school dropouts is almost double that for white high school dropouts. Many female dropouts, both white and minority, were married so that family responsibilities probably kept them out of the labor force. Figures were not available indicating proportions by race here. Nor were breakdowns by age obtainable. This is unfortunate, for it would have been interesting to make comparisons excluding female dropouts under age 18 for unemployment rates for white and minority groups.

Table 29 provides some clues on the contribution of age to participation in the labor force for minorities, women and men. The proportion of working minority women exceeds that for white women in all age groups above 25. The situation is reversed, however, among women 16-24. Table 30 indicates that a high proportion of white 16 and 17-year-olds are working (41.7) whereas 21.3 percent of minority girls these ages are working.

Table 28

Number of Own Children of Working Mothers, By Race, Type of Family, and Age of Children, March 1973

(Number in thousands)

Race and type of family	Total children under 18 years	Children under 6 years	Children 6 to 17 years
Minority	4,377	1,149	3,228
Husband-wife family	2,971	834	2,137
Female-head family	1,406	315	1,091
White	21,812	4,803	17,009
Husband-wife family	18,900	4,263	14,637
Female-head family	2,912	540	2,372

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1974

Table 29

Employment Status of High School Graduates Not Enrolled In College and Dropouts Aged 16 to 21 Years, by Sex and Race, October 1972

Sex and race	Graduates not enrolled in college		Dropouts	
	Labor force participation rate	Unemployment rate	Labor force participation rate	Unemployment rate
Women:				
Total	73.6	12.1	40.5	24.9
Minority	69.0	32.4	41.0	42.4
White	74.3	9.3	40.4	20.9
Men:				
Total	93.1	9.6	84.0	16.2
Minority	89.8	18.4	78.9	18.1
White	93.5	8.6	85.4	15.8

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1974

Table 30

Percent of Persons in Civilian Labor Force, by Age, Sex, and Race, 1973

Age	Women		Men	
	Minority	White	Minority	White
Total 16 years and over	49.1	44.1	73.8	79.5
16 and 17 years	24.3	41.7	33.4	52.7
18 and 19 years	45.1	58.9	61.4	72.3
20 to 24 years	57.5	61.6	81.8	85.8
25 to 34 years	61.0	48.5	91.7	96.3
35 to 44 years	60.7	52.2	91.3	96.8
45 to 54 years	56.4	53.4	88.0	93.5
55 to 64 years	44.7	40.8	70.7	79.0
65 years and over	11.1	8.7	22.6	22.8
18 to 64 years	56.2	51.4	84.0	90.0

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1974

Occupations by Field for Minority and White Women

More minority women than white women are working as service workers, operatives and private household workers. A larger proportion of white women are working in the clerical, sales, management and professional and technical fields, although, it should be noted, the participation of minority women in the professions has increased recently so that it almost matches that of white workers. Table 31 presents data for 1973 and for 1960, illustrating these trends.

Women Going to College

The Opportunities

Koontz (1972) reports that women's studies courses and programs have developed on more than 200 American college campuses during 1972 alone. More than 800 courses were offered, many of them intended to fill gaps in women's knowledge about themselves, their special problems, and their history. Course offerings typically are interdisciplinary, and most frequently are in law, history, english, sociology and psychology. Thirty-two campuses currently offer a major in the women's studies field, according to Robinson (1973).

Koontz indicated that these courses are having a major impact on women students. They reveal to women that the socialization process has restricted women to stereotypic roles; this realization tends to stimulate women students to seek new nontraditional roles, and to break with the stereotypes. The courses also present new role models through history, literature and the current scene, and elaborate women's new rights under law.

Table 31

Major Occupation Groups of Employed Women, by Race, 1960 and 1973 1/

Selected major occupation group	1973		1960	
	Minority	White	Minority	White
Number (in thousands)	3,999	28,448	2,821	19,376
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical workers	12.0	14.9	6.9	13.1
Nonfarm managers and administrators	2.6	5.2	1.8	5.4
Clerical workers	24.4	35.7	9.3	32.9
Sales workers	2.5	7.5	1.5	8.5
Operatives (including transport)	16.9	13.4	14.1	15.1
Service workers (except private household)	25.2	16.4	21.4	13.7
Private household workers	12.9	2.9	35.1	6.1
Other occupations	3.6	4.0	10.8	5.2

1/ Women 16 years of age and over in 1973 but 14 years and over in 1960.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1974

The Law

Prior to Title IX, many colleges had regulations requiring women students to stay in college-regulated dormitories, while no such regulation existed for men. Disparate residency requirements for out-of-state students existed in many institutions for women and men, affecting their eligibility for in-state tuition payments. In 1973, 31 active complaints were filed against higher education institutions, involving such issues as dormitory rules, disparate residency requirements for in-state tuition, admissions and health insurance. Favorable rulings have helped reduce these barriers on American college campuses (See Chapter V).

College Enrollment Rates

Koontz (1972) presented data for college enrollment of women in 1930 and 1970, indicating that enrollment and number of degrees granted during this period has kept pace with male enrollments. Enrollment of girls in 1930 was 43.7 percent of total enrollment, and in 1970 it was 41.3 percent. In 1930, women received 39.9 percent of the Bachelors Degrees granted; in 1970, they received 41.6 percent. If any change is noted, it may be that more women who enroll in college today are actually finishing their B.A. compared with the 1930's. However, it should be noted that percentage of degrees granted in the same year is not strictly comparable to enrollment percentages.

Cross (1974) presented data establishing that mothers with a high school education were more willing to give financial assistance to sons wishing to attend college (73%) than to daughters (60%). This may be a contributing factor to the disparity between male and female college enrollments.

Cross also reported figures indicating that female college students obtain fewer scholarships, take out more personal loans and obtain less money from part-time work than do male students. These circumstances may be changing, though. Equal pay rates for men and women taking part-time jobs is now required by the law. The scholarship situation is influenced by the attitudes of the scholarship committee as well as the merit of the applicants, and less amenable to legal intervention. However, changes even here are beginning to occur. Radcliffe and Harvard have launched a joint capitol fund raising campaign to raise approximately $5 million for scholarship aid for Radcliffe women in order to achieve equity in scholarship funds available to Radcliffe and Harvard students (On Campus With Women, June, 1974).

Presently, barriers to women's enrollment in American colleges appear to stem from the following sources:

- less encouragement from home and society to attend, especially in lower socioeconomic families
- less financial aid available from scholarships
- more restrictive dormitory requirements

Legislation has made the latter two factors subject to legal remedy. The first can change only as the attitudes of parents change, and they begin to value education equally for both daughters and sons.

Degree Obtained

Koontz' (1972) data indicates that the humanities and education accounted for 61 percent of women college graduates in 1969. Table

32 compares figures for 1956 graduates with those for 1969. The U.S. Office of Education has constructed similar figures for 1966-67 in graphic form (See Chart 33).

A further breakdown of these data is presented in Appendix A.

Post Graduate Education

More women are enrolling in nontraditional graduate level professional degree programs in 1974 than ever before. In the two years since Title IX of the Education Amendments and Executive Order 11246 (1972) were enacted, enrollments have increased in medicine and law by more than 33 percent. Figures for enrollment are presented in Table 34 for a few of the nontraditional areas. On Campus with Women (1974) reports increased enrollments for individual institutions in engineering which, although not nationally representative, reflect a growing trend. Purdue University had 69 women enrolled in first year engineering in 1973, an increase of 40 over their enrollment in 1972. At U.C. Berkeley, enrollment of women in engineering classes jumped 70 percent between 1972 and 1973; women now comprise five percent of the total enrollment in the engineering department. Renselaer Polytechnic Institute had a ten percent overall enrollment of women for 1973.

Table 32

Percent of Bachelor's Degrees Received by Women in Various Fields

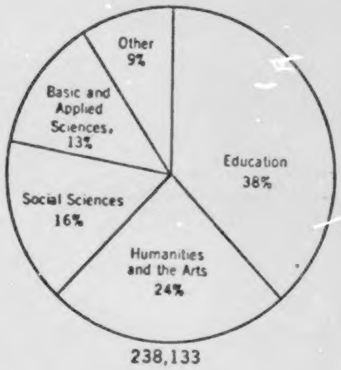
Field	1968-69	1955-56
Teacher Education	39	49
Humanities	22	17
Social Sciences	15	10
Health Professions	4	6
Natural Sciences	4	4

Source: Koontz, 1972

Chart 33

2 Out of 5 Women College Graduates Major in Education

(Bachelor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Field of Study, 1966-67)



Source: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education

Table 34

Percent of Women Enrolled in Professional Training, Selected Fields

Year	Veterinary Medicine	Architecture	Dentistry	Engineering	Law	Medicine
1965	7	-	-	-	5	8
1971	16	-	2	3	12	14
1972	19	11	3	3	16	17
1973	-	-	-	-	20	20

Source: Parrish, 1974; Association of American Colleges, 1974

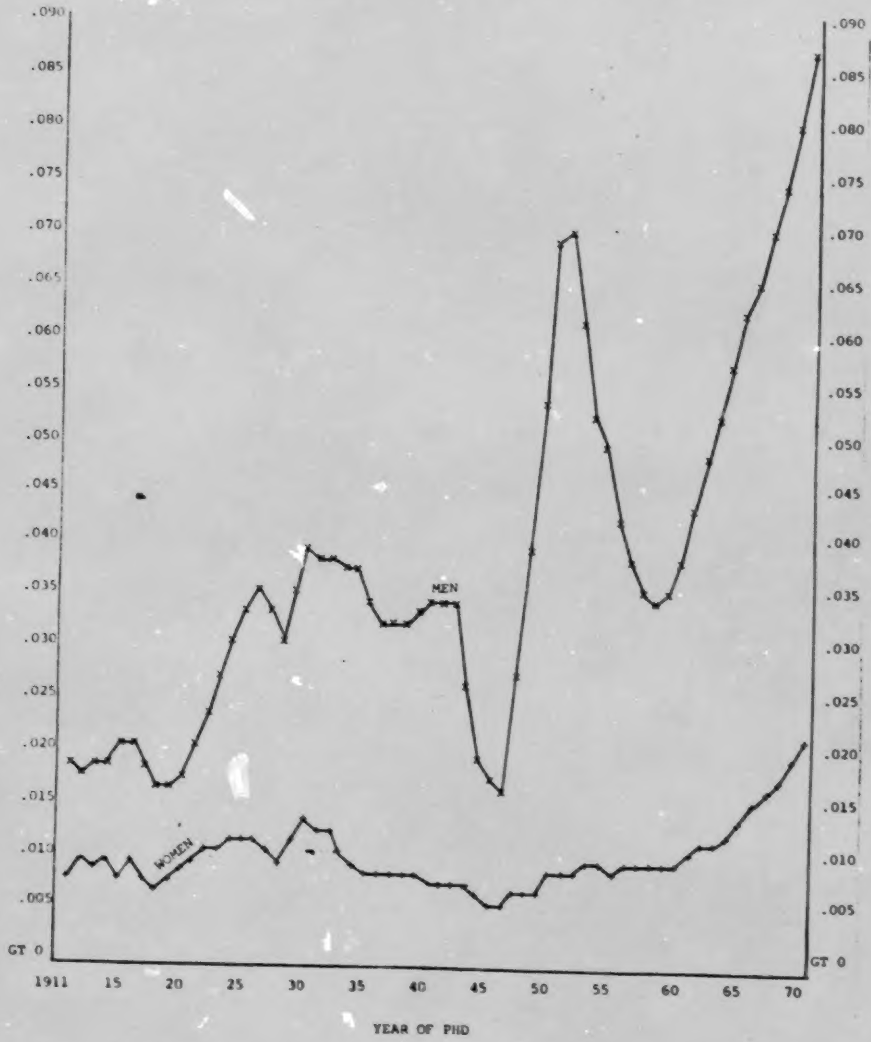
More women now are pursuing doctoral degrees than ever before. In 1930, 313 women earned doctorates in America, compared to 4,585 in 1971 (Solman, 1972). However, the percentage of women earning doctorates compared to men has not improved over the 1930's (15.1%, 1930; 14.4%, 1971). Chart 35 presents data for women and men earning doctorates from 1920 to 1971. In light of the dramatic changes in enrollments in nontraditional professional fields since 1971 (Table 34), it would be interesting to obtain data on changes in women's enrollments in doctoral programs since 1971 (these were not available to the authors, however).

An American Council of Education investigation of over 280,000 students who participated as freshmen in a 1967 study revealed that women's level of aspiration had increased significantly 1967 and their graduation in 1971. In 1967, 38.6 percent of the freshmen women studied aspired to a master's or doctoral degree; in 1971 (at the time of graduation), 50.2 percent aspired for such degrees. (For men, the increase was from 46.2 percent to only 47.7 percent). These same individuals had changed their attitude toward the notion that "women's place is in the home." In 1967, 56.6 percent agreed with that notion, but by 1971, only 23.5 percent agreed (Astin & Bisconti, 1973).

Data for women graduating with masters and doctorate degrees in 1967, by field of study, are presented in Appendices B and C. These data provide a picture of women in 1967 similar to undergraduate distribution by field. A majority (51%) of women's graduate degrees were in mathematics and the physical sciences. The other 40% were accounted for by psychology (9.4%), the social

Chart 35

Fraction of Recent B.A.'s Who Receive Ph.D.'s



Source: Solmon, 1973

sciences (12.6%), the biological sciences (13.9%) and other professional fields (3.1%).

Data were not available at time of printing for 1974.

Women and the Natural Sciences

Astin (1973) presented evidence that more women obtain degrees in math than in the natural sciences, as compared with men (See Table 36). Although women are typically thought to have less mathematical aptitude than men, this difference is not statistically significant until adolescence (Astin, 1972). Women's interests in math and the natural sciences, however, is found to be significantly lower than men and boys from the second grade on (Siegal, 1973; Campbell, 1973). Building on this finding, if women's interest in math and science is significantly lower than men's, given comparable early (preadolescent) aptitude, we may assume that lack of interest is learned (Holland, 1973; Osipow, 1973; Super, 1969) and could be changed, given a different environment in the home and elementary and secondary schools. Encouraging little girls' interest in investigative play and academic achievement in science and math could lead to more women obtaining college degrees in these fields. Although many more women obtain bachelors and master's degrees in math than in the natural sciences, a greater proportion of women than men obtain Ph.D.'s in the natural sciences (6.6 vs. 2.1%). Astin (1973) reported that many women with measured aptitudes in mathematics do obtain graduate degrees, but in fields other than math or the natural sciences. If the science field is in need of more trained persons, as the Bureau of Labor

Table 36

Women Obtain More Degrees in Math Than the Natural Sciences In 1967

Degree	Natural Sciences		Math	
	% of Women/All Fields	% Compared to Men	% of Women/All Fields	% Compared to Men
BA	1.1	13.5	3.1	34.3
MA	1.0	10.2	2.3	24.3
Ph.D	6.6	4.7	2.4	7.1

Source: From U. S. Office of Education, 1970

Statistics has indicated (Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1974-75 Edition), women with math and science aptitudes need to be encouraged and reinforced for choosing scientific careers early in their academic training.

Fellowship Aid Increasing

On Campus with Women (1974) cited some special fellowship funds recently assigned to women for graduate level study.

- Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs provides full tuition and a living stipend, based on need, to women who enroll in their two year master's degree program. For more information write to the school in Princeton, N.J.
- Randolph-Macon Woman's College will cut tuition in half for alumnae who return for additional study.

Solmon reported (1974) that women receive more fellowship support proportionately than men, except in the professional fields. His data are presented in Table 37.

Barriers to Part-Time Graduate Study Coming Down

Some medical schools (e.g., George Washington University, Columbia) now are offering shared residency plans to women to make it possible for them to raise a family during these years of medical training. In a "shared residency" plan, two resident doctors may arrange to share their work schedules at the hospital of residency.

Some Barriers to Higher Education Remain

Solmon (1974) has analyzed data from 80 representative graduate schools across the nation. These indicate that women are slightly

Table 37

Fellowships Classified by Field, 1968-73

	Applicants			Recipients		
	Total	# of Women	% of Women	Total	# of Women	% of Women
Physical Sciences	7,717	359	4.65	2,140	163	7.61
Social Sciences[a]	9,801	955	9.74	2,187	388	17.74
Arts & Humanities	8,403	1,180	14.04	1,927	294	15.25
Professional Fields[b]	548	49	8.94	4,618	337	7.29
Education[c]	23,659	8,160	34.49	6,299	2,637	41.86
Unclassified[d]	66,778	12,722	19.05	105,356	22,857	21.69

[a] 3,835 applications/485 recipients were not categorized by sex.

[b] 2,854 applications were not categorized by sex.

[c] 950 applicants were not categorized by sex.

[d] 49,542 applicants were not categorized by sex.

Source: Attwood, C. (1972). "Women in Fellowship and Training Programs" Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges.

discriminated against in top-ranking institutions and that they have something of an advantage in admissions at less highly rated institutions. Table 38 presents these data. Solman presents further evidence that female and male applicants accepted by the 86 schools studied obtained similar Graduate Record Exam scores, and were generally of comparable merit.

Criteria Other Than "Merit" Used in Admissions

The beliefs and attitudes of admissions committees and graduate faculty reviewing applications have been demonstrated to affect selection (Solman, 1974). The belief that women tend to "drop out" of graduate school more frequently than men, and that they will get married and not use their training for as long a period as men tend to weight the selection criteria in a negative direction. Recent studies (Harris, 1970; Solman, 1972) have demonstrated that at Berkeley and the University of Chicago, women in graduate schools drop out in greater proportions than men (5.8% vs. 4.0%). However, Sells (1969) found that drop out rate at Berkeley declined for women graduate students between 1962 and 1968 as a result of an affirmative action project to redress inequities for women. However, relative to the second belief, studies demonstrate that women continue to work after marriage at a higher rate, the higher the level of their education. Astin (1967) found that 91 percent of 1,547 women doctorate students were employed ten years after their graduation in 1957, and 79 percent had not interrupted their careers at all.

These attitudes will change as women demonstrate their commitment

Table 38

Favoritism in Schools of Differing Quality

	Acceptances/Applications		
Roose-Anderson Rating	Male	Female	Coefficient of Favoritism*
4+	.314	.295	6.05
3-99 - 3.50	.298	.308	- 3.36
3.49 - 3.00	.394	.409	- 3.81
2.99 - 2.50	.504	.572	-13.49
2.49 - 2.00	.565	.645	-14.16
1.99 - 1.50	.485	.524	- 8.04
1.49 - 1.00	.717	.789	-10.04
Not Rated	.626	.683	- 9.11

*Coefficient of favoritism is the difference between the acceptance/application rates for men and women, divided by the male rate, times 100. Hence a negative coefficient indicates that women are favored.

Source: Solmon, 1974

to graduate work. Such commitment will be more feasible when graduate institutions offer more flexible study schedules to women and help them plan for their dual role rather than make the dual role a source of conflict.

Continuing Education

Enormous progress has been made in recent years in continuing education programs for women. Individually, women have been continuing or resuming their education after marriage for many years. What is new about the more recently developed continuing education programs is that the way is being made easier for large numbers of women, and that they now are being encouraged to do something which formerly was regarded as rather peculiar. Growing awareness of the educational needs of mature women has led to the development of such diverse programs as the Minnesota Plan for the Continuing Education of Women (Senders, 1961), the Radcliffe Institute for Independent Study (Bunting, 1961), and the Sarah Lawrence Center for Continuing Education (Raushenbush, 1961; Center for Continuing Education and Community Studies, 1966). The programs, all created with Carnegie and Rockefeller financing, have been so enthusiastically received and so successful that institutions all over the country have followed suit by establishing other programs to assist mature women in continuing their education.

The President's Commission on the Status of Women (1973) established these Programs to provide:

a) *The acceptance and encouragement of part-time study* through such measures as grants of financial aid and increased flexibility in working out individual schedules

b) *Reexamination of policies* on admission, academic prerequisites, transfer of credits, and graduation requirements (including such nonacademic requirements as residence and physical education)

c) *Wider use of proficiency testing* and other means to give credit for knowledge and experience acquired outside regular academic channels

d) *The establishment of bridging courses* to rebuild habits of study, introduce new techniques, and provide the background and confidence for contemporary study and work

e) *The development of educational guidance services* to help the mature woman deal with the problems and opportunities of resumed study and a possible second career

f) *The creation of special programs* to prepare mature women to work in fields where their aptitudes and urgent social needs coincide, such as teaching and nursing.

Financial Support for Continuing Education

a) Funds should be made available to colleges, universities, and vocational, technical, and professional schools *to help mature women complete, augment, or redirect their education.* Such funds could be used for research, experimental programs, extension of existing programs, teachers' salaries, new facilities, and, *of great importance, development of adequate guidance programs.*

b) *Part-time students* should be eligible under Federal fellowship, scholarship, and loan programs, as well as university sponsored financial aid programs, if they have a reasonable plan for part-time study and if they can show that a part-time program is necessary or advisable for them.

Continuing Education During the Years at Home

New and imaginative educational programs should be developed for the woman in her home.

a) *Educational television, radio, correspondence courses, and programed learning* should be directed to this group.

b) Colleges, universities, and professional organizations should take greater responsibility for helping their alumni or members maintain competence and commitment during the years at home.

Guidance and Counseling

In a democracy offering broad and everchanging choices, where ultimate decisions are made by individuals, skilled counseling must be an *integral* part of education.

a) Public and private agencies should join in strengthening counseling resources. The number of well-qualified counselors should be increased at all educational levels. The pattern set by counseling and guidance institutes should be expanded and should include guidance personnel in college and elementary schools as well as high school counselors. Public and private agencies offering employment counseling should be adequately staffed and their standards raised.

b) Comprehensive and accurate materials about women's life patterns and potentialities should be prepared for use by counselors at all educational levels, as well as educational literature describing occupational requirements and available opportunities for continuing education and training. These materials should be widely distributed to counselors, teachers, and those directly or indirectly involved in the guidance of young people. Directories of qualified vocational and educational counseling facilities in communities and States should be prepared and made widely accessible.

c) Educational institutions offering programs of counseling education and those offering training to established counselors should provide course material on the differences and similarities of the sexes, including life patterns, role expectations, native abilities, and interests. These institutions should also offer supervised practical experience in counseling girls and women. Such material and practical experience should give special attention to girls and women from low-income and minority groups.

Innovations in curricula and educational practices developed through degree programs especially for adults are of particular significance to women. Such programs often include several of the following features: Short-term residence requirements, independent study, credit for life experience, seminars, correspondence study, use of radio and TV, and programmed learning. Some of the schools with this type of program include Brooklyn College, Goddard College, Mundelein College (Illinois), Pacific Oaks College (California), Roosevelt University (Illinois), Syracuse University, and the University of Oklahoma. Following the apparent success in the use of proficiency examinations for assigning course credit in New York State, the College Entrance Examination Board is moving toward the establishment of a nation-wide system of accrediting examinations for college-level courses. This action by CEEB is complemented by the ETS (Educational Testing Service) college equivalency examinations cutting across a field of study, as well as examinations in specific subjects. There are more than 400 colleges and universities around the country that will accept College-Level Examination Program (CLEP) scores.

The Minnesota Plan (Senders, 1961) continues to be the clearest prototype of what a special educational program for women can offer. In 1960, the University of Minnesota formally organized a facility specifically committed to making the resources of the university more efficiently and effectively useful to adult women. Now called the Minnesota Planning and Counseling Center for Women, it highlights individual counseling and information services for women at all levels of education. Women are referred to both educational and employment opportunities throughout the local metropolitan area. This comprehensive program also encompasses scholarship aid for adult women, nursery facilities, and job placement services. Beginning in 1966, the Center has offered the program Operation: Second Chance, through which over 60 post-high school educational institutions provide advisory, counseling, and related services to adult women throughout the state.

Sarah Lawrence College in 1962 initiated a program especially for adult women who wish to resume an interrupted college education on a part-time basis. The women are provided counseling assistance and refresher courses prior to admission as degree candidates. Enthusiastic response to this program stimulated the establishment of part-time arrangements for graduate study also. In addition to a master's degree program conducted on campus, the college has arranged with two other schools for part-time study programs leading to a master's degree in social work, library science, or early childhood and elementary education. Sarah Lawrence has fellowship aid available for women who wish to study part-time.

Nicol (1964) points out two basic areas of difference between the Minnesota Plan and the Sarah Lawrence Program: 1) the Sarah Lawrence Advisory Service is directed toward a multiplicity of institutions, whereas most of the women in the Minnesota Plan use the resources of the University itself; 2) both programs offer educational advice but only the Minnesota Plan offers vocational counseling. To be accepted to the Sarah Lawrence Program, the woman must have fairly clearly defined goals. These must go beyond the particular degree and reflect a realization of what the aspirant will do after the degree has been obtained. Thus, while Minnesota and Sarah Lawrence vary in their restrictiveness, each program depends on counseling as its keystone. As in noteworthy programs at other institutions, it is the amount of attention devoted to guidance that is the real criterion of an effective continuing education program for women.

General orientation workshops or courses have been developed by various colleges and universities in response to demands from adult women interested in entering or reentering the work force. These courses typically provide guest lectures on careers, information about educational courses and volunteer work, counseling on both a group and an individual basis, and placement assistance.

Among the schools offering this type of continuing education program are Hofstra University (New York); Long Beach City College (California); Michigan State University; and the University of California at Los Angeles. Especially noteworthy are general orientation courses offered by public school systems in two localities: Arlington, Virginia and Port Washington, New York.

The Radcliffe Institute for Independent Study seeks highly qualified women, particularly those with advanced degrees, and provides generous financial assistance so they can combine a period of creative study with homemaking. Its expanded program also includes two other fellowship programs, weekly seminars for adult women, a guidance laboratory, and a research program.

A few institutions focus their continuing education activities on one field of study. For example, Rutgers University offers a Retraining Program in Mathematics and Science; and Wellesley College conducts an Institute in Chemistry that leads to a master's degree. In addition, numerous schools offer refresher courses in professional nursing, teaching, home economics, or business skills.

A number of courses prepare adult women for employment in semiskilled occupations, such as assistants or aides. In this category are courses for "gericareaides" and teacher aides, library aides, mental health assistants, nursery school assistants, research assistants, and school library aides, social work aides, and teacher aides.

Many colleges and universities are attempting to meet specific educational needs of their alumnae, as well as of other women living in their area. In a survey conducted for the American Alumni Council, it was found that 1,115 programs of a continuing education nature were being conducted at 519 colleges and universities and 45 secondary schools by the institutions (not the alumni associations). Of these, 163 were extension courses, 263 evening schools, 168 adult education seminars, 233 institutes or short courses of a professional nature, 71 alumni colleges, 173 TV or radio programs or both, and 39 miscellaneous programs. Credit is given in 644 of them. In addition, 161 institutions reported programs conducted by alumni associations (Nicol, 1964).

The number of senior and junior colleges and universities offering some form of evening and extension work in the United States now approaches 400, and new programs are constantly being added (Farmer, 1967). However, Liveright and Goldman (1965) point out that new program developments are evident in only a small number of the hundreds of institutions offering programs in higher adult education. The Women's Bureau (1968) notes that varied educational opportunities offered in regular undergraduate, graduate and adult education programs, while "exceedingly valuable to adult women" may not meet educational needs and problems requiring special attention. In Appendix A of their 1968 pamphlet, they offer a "partial" list of over 200 colleges and universities with continuing education programs or special educational services designed primarily for adult women. However, the adequacy of the "special procedures or services designed specifically for mature women" in the institutions listed may be open to question.

Various service-oriented organizations also have begun to develop special services or programs for mature women. Such groups include women's organizations, community organizations, high schools, State or local government agencies, as well as miscellaneous private groups.

Another development in support of continuing education programs for women comes under the "Community Service and Continuing Education Programs" authorized under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Between passage of the Act in November, 1965 and June 30, 1967, 24 programs were approved for Federal funding to provide counseling, training, or academic instruction specifically for women. Programs were oriented toward nurses, home economists and other teachers, medical secretaries, and other occupational groups comprised mainly of women. Other programs focus on family responsibility and management and also attract primarily women participants. Community service programs sponsored by higher education institutions, to be eligible for funds, were developed "to meet the unique educational needs of the adult population who have either completed or interrupted their formal education."

Opportunities for Training in the Crafts

Training opportunities for the crafts may be divided into at least three categories: 1) preapprenticeship training in secondary school and community college industrial and trade programs; 2) training programs federally funded through the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA); and 3) on the job apprenticeship training programs in industry. Each of these will be discussed below.

Preapprenticeship training in public secondary schools or community colleges have been historically marked by sex role stereotyping. Women are encouraged to take programs in business and home economics, but discouraged from preparing for occupations in the shop trades. Briggs (1974) reported that 98.5 percent of enrollees in Wisconsin high school industrial classes were male in 1973. Hedges and Bemis (1974) reported, however, that this picture is changing, and that public secondary education preapprenticeship programs nationally are beginning to prepare more women for the skilled trades. Women represented 12 percent of the enrollment in these programs in 1972, nationally. In 1973, 500 or more women were enrolled in training programs for air conditioning appliance repair, auto body and fender repair, auto mechanics, aviation occupations, carpentry, electricity, construction and maintenance, electrical occupations, electronic occupations, metalworking occupations, small engine repair and woodworking. By 1974, 150 girls were enrolled in technical high school in Milwaukee which had previously been all male. Technical high schools have until July 1979 to achieve non-discriminatory admissions under provisions of Title IX of the Education Amendments, 1972.

Many of these programs overlap with those cited by the Women's Bureau (1973) as likely to have increased employment in the 70's, notably, air conditioning repair, auto mechanic, aircraft mechanic, electrician and appliance repair.

Some school districts are taking a lead from Sweden (Galenson, 1973), where home economics courses have been required for boys and shop courses required for girls, in elementary schools since 1968. This move is intended to offset early social conditioning effects on boys and girls into narrow sex role stereotypes, and instead encourage boys and girls to select tasks which interest them in a flexible, asexual pattern. Elsewhere in this manual, this thrust is described as part of an effort to achieve "androgynous" education (Mead, 1974; Bardwick, 1974).

Manpower Training Programs. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 makes it illegal to exclude persons from federally funded training programs because of race or sex. This legal action should change the proportions of women enrolling and graduating from manpower training programs. In 1968, the greatest proportion of women in these training programs were in nursing refresher courses and health related occupations. Only 9 percent of women enrolled in these programs were in the machine trades, electronic components assembly repair and bench work occupations. Table 39 demonstrates, however, that more women are enrolling in manpower training programs for training in the crafts (15.7%) than in other public training programs.

Apprenticeship Training Programs are the major employment mobility channel for persons with limited formal education and/or financial resources. For disadvantaged women, apprenticeship programs offer a route to higher income and work satisfaction. To qualify as an apprentice, a minimum of two years of on-the-job training is required in skills not obtainable in full-time academic classrooms. All apprenticeships are subsidized.

Several organizations and labor unions have recently acted on behalf of women to make it possible for them to enter apprenticeship programs. Hedges and Bemis (1974) reported that the National

Table 39

Women Enrolled in Public Vocational Courses, by Type of Program, 1966-67

Program	All women enrollees			Secondary school courses		Post-secondary-school courses		Adult extension courses		Special needs programs	
	Number	Percent distribution	As percent of total enrollees	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	3,827,166	100.0	54.3	2,349,070	100.0	214,617	100.0	1,228,159	100.0	35,320	100.0
Home economics[1]	2,101,221	54.9	96.2	1,416,185	60.3	3,036	1.4	659,501	53.7	22,499	63.7
Job-oriented courses	57,025	1.5	91.6	18,286	.8	2,744	1.3	31,762	2.6	4,236	12.0
Office occupations	1,214,925	31.7	77.3	781,459	33.3	128,509	59.9	301,494	24.5	3,463	9.8
Distribution	214,314	5.6	44.6	74,446	3.2	6,698	3.1	130,917	10.7	2,253	6.4
Trades and industry	155,808	4.1	10.5	53,849	2.3	17,189	8.0	79,218	6.5	5,552	15.7
Health occupations	109,005	2.8	94.7	15,773	.7	51,008	23.8	40,837	3.3	1,387	3.9
Technical education	22,890	.6	8.6	2,445	.1	7,509	3.5	12,881	1.0	55	.2
Agriculture	9,003	.2	1.0	4,913	.2	668	.3	3,311	.3	111	.3

[1] Includes women in courses not shown separately.

Source: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education.

Association of Women in Construction has a 12-week course in the basics of construction designed to upgrade the skills of women already working in the industry, and to train high school girls in construction. The United Community Services Demonstration and Development Fund (San Diego, California) offers a 20-week training program in the repair trades. The YWCA in Denver and the Advocates for Women in San Francisco both work with employers and unions to place women in apprenticeship programs.

The United Automobile Workers union has 200,000 women members, and was instrumental in removing from state statutes the protective laws for working women. The Electrical Workers union also has a women's department, which takes an active role in extending the legal rights of employed women. In March, 1974, more than 3,000 women members of 58 unions voted into existence a national organization to work for women's rights within the trade union. This body is called the Coalition of Labor Union Women (CLUW). CLUW is committed to extending to all workers the protection of regulations originally aimed at protecting women, such as those mandatory units on hours worked, breaks during the workday, and seating for workers.

Legislative changes to remove restrictive aspects of the protective laws have benefited women in the crafts. In the past, protective legislation frequently prevented women from working overtime, and from accumulating seniority. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) has stated that such laws do not take into account the special interests and abilities of some women; therefore, they are discriminatory on the basis of sex. Recent rulings of the EEOC hold that laws requiring special rest and meal periods or physical facilities for women are in violation of Title VII of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act. An employer must provide the same benefits for "both" sexes, thus require the same rest periods, etc. Maternity leave with full reemployment rights became available to many more workers with the passage of Title VII. A Department of Labor study (CACSW, 1974) indicated that 73 percent of employed women surveyed were receiving such leave. This change means that seniority accumulation would not be interrupted by maternity leave. Changes such as these also make work in the crafts more attractive to women.

The Wisconsin Apprenticeship Project (Briggs, 1974) has developed a film entitled Never Underestimate the Power of a Woman. The film was used with industrial employers and was intended to serve two basic purposes: 1) to explode myths about alleged unsuitability of women for work in a wide range of industrial jobs traditionally filled by men; and 2) to motivate attitudinal changes in employers to persuade them to open up apprenticeship programs to women which had been traditionally closed to them. The success of the film in achieving its purposes is partly attested to by the number of requests for its use.

One result of showing the film to industrial employers and union groups was change in the attitude that "because men are the breadwinners they should get the employment opportunities when there are not enough to go around." It was a revelation that many women are "heads of household" and are, in fact, the only breadwinner for a family. The film depicts middle-aged women in nontraditional crafts; it has not been found highly effective for high school girls.

Trends

International

The international scene for women at work has much in common with that in the United States. In every country reviewed, planning for the dual role was seen as an important part of the working woman's responsibility. In no country was this double role of homemaker and worker shared equally by men and women. No country has solved the childcare problems of the working mother, although some (e.g., France) have met as much as 60 percent of the need. In 1972, the United States had met only 18 percent of the childcare need. More mothers of small children are working than ever before in all countries studied. Employers are beginning to offer more flexible scheduling for employment of women on a part-time basis to make it easier for mothers of young children to work.

Not surprisingly, internationally, women work in fewer occupations than men, and are crowded in the ranks of nursing, teaching and secretarial work. This is true in spite of the fact that Russia, Israel and Scandinavia are ahead of the United States in terms of encouraging women's participation in nontraditional professional careers (i.e., engineering, dentistry, medicine). Internationally, women earn less than men with comparable training. Legislation now exists in most countries prohibiting discrimination in pay based on sex.

More women are working today than before in all countries studied. It is also true internationally that the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to work. Women are increasingly being seen as competent to do any type of work they wish to do.

Surprisingly, women around the world are poorly represented in politics and management. There are only a very few cases where women play visible leadership roles (e.g., Israel, India). Several countries (Denmark, Finland, France, Belgium and Canada) did have more women employed in the skilled trades and crafts than the United States.

United States

Emerging trends suggest an increasing optimism is justified about expanding opportunities for women in the 70's and 80's. More women are working than ever before, including mothers of young children, and more women are entering nontraditional and challenging occupations. The more education a woman has, the more likely she is to continue to work, even during the childbearing years. However, it is true that a majority of women work in a few "traditional" occupations -- teacher, nurse, librarian and social worker. This "crowding" contributes to the fact that they earn less than men with comparable education.

Counselors are encouraged to expose girls to new career opportunities in management, the crafts, physical sciences and the professions. Part-time work opportunities are increasing at all levels of occupations, and legislation requiring Affirmative Action Plans on college and university campuses has provided the impetus for an environment which welcomes women in nontraditional training programs (law, medicine, architecture, veterinary medicine, etc.).

Continuing Education programs on hundreds of college campuses now are making it easier for mature women to return to school, by providing financial aid, flexible scheduling, childcare and generous transfer of credit for previous academic work and/or relevant life experience. Apprenticeship training opportunities are beginning to open up for women, largely as a result of legislation. Apprenticeships provide opportunities for women who cannot afford to go back to school to upgrade their training.

Minority women have made gains in the past decade in the world of work. They are earning more, and the educational and salary gap between white and minority women workers is closing. Minority women are moving into the nontraditional professions almost as rapidly as white women. The area of greatest discrepancy between minority and white women workers is in teenage employment. Far more minority teenagers than white are unemployed. Minority women have a greater sense of responsibility toward working than white women; they view their incomes as contributing importantly to the family's general support, rather than merely supplementing it.

III. THE SPECIAL ISSUES: A REVIEW

What's In This Section

This chapter looks at some issues related to counseling women which have not yet been resolved. Either research evidence bearing upon them is incomplete, or social values supporting them are in a state of transition. For example, for topics such as the impact of the working mother an her children, nature of biological and psychological differences between the sexes; and fear of success in women, much basic research evidence is still being collected.*

Does the Working Mother Hurt Her Children?

A common belief among men and women alike is that the working woman by definition neglects her children, especially if she works when they are very young (Keivit, 1972; Darling, 1973). An even more pervasive belief among men and women of all cultures is that woman's primary responsibility is in the home (Darling, 1973; Mead, 1974). These two beliefs are related. The thinking goes as follows: If a woman's primary responsibility is to see that the new generation of children grow up strong and healthy, physically and psychologically, she can't do that and work outside the home eight hours a day.

There is some research supporting the relationship between working mothers and juvenile delinquency (White, 1972). However, the evidence is stronger for a causal relationship between rejecting, permissive mothers and delinquency (White, 1972).

---

*Chapter VI includes a listing of some current research efforts sponsored by the National Institute of Education.

A review of the impact of working mothers on their children was published by Wallston (1973). This review indicates that adequate substitute care, and the mother's own attitude about working, were the most significant variables related to whether or not the children were affected adversely. Adequate substitute care is defined as having the dual attributes of continuity and nurturance. Such substitutes as grandparents, close relatives and paid live-in nannies are examples. Mead (1974) found in cross-cultural studies that adjustment is facilitated if the child is cared for by many warm friendly people (e.g., in India, Israel). Continuity of care in the preschool years has been found to be important to provide a predictable environment and conditions necessary to develop emotional attachments (Skard, 1965). In support of Mead's conclusion, a study by Caldwell and Richmond (1968) of children six months to four years of age, using a control group design, found that children attending a day care center designed to provide an enriching environment showed gains on a measure of developmental maturity greater than for those children who stayed home. In addition, this study found smaller gains for children who entered the day care center at age three than for those children who had attended from age six months, suggesting that early exposure to enriching substitute care may actually be beneficial to a child's development. Research findings on the effect of Kibbutzim arrangements for child-rearing are mostly positive and indicate that children raised in this manner tend to be less individually competitive and more effective on group competitive tasks (Irvine, 1966; Rabin, 1965; Bettelheim, 1969; Shapira & Madsen, 1969). Studies in the USSR indicate that children of working mothers are emotionally secure and outgoing (Mace, 1961).

Studies on the mother's attitude toward working and the effect of her attitude on her children indicate that mothers who feel anxious or unhappy about working tend to have angry, hostile children (Hoffman, 1963). In contrast, children of mothers who like their work are more outgoing and confident. Studies on home-career conflict (Morgan, 1962) have not examined the possible relationship between high conflict and negative outcomes for children.

Rappaport (1969) noted that an increasing emphasis on partnership in dual-career families had a positive effect on children's attitudes toward their mother's working. Cultural acceptance of the working mother can reduce guilt feelings of working women, and in turn reduce the negative effect on children (Rabin, 1965, Wallston, 1973).

Available evidence from several sources indicates that child care in the United States is provided as follows:

1.	Father	15%	at home
2.	Relative	21%	
3.	Non-relative	9%	
4.	Child present at work site	13%	at work
5.	Cared for in other home	16%	other home, school
6.	Child in school during working hours	15%	
7.	Other unspecified (private & public institutions	11%	

Darling (1973) reported similar findings, internationally. The majority of children of working mothers in every country studied are in privately arranged care. Most of this care consists of unpaid general supervision by a family member or relatives. In the United States, Australia and Canada, publicly-supported day care systems account for less than 10 percent of care. In countries such as France, Finland and Japan, public care accounts for about 20 percent of all child care.

In summary, whether or not the children of working women are affected negatively appears to depend on at least two factors. The first is the attitude of the mother (and of society) about women working. A more accepting attitude has been found to have a positive effect on children of working mothers (Wallston, 1973). The second factor is availability of adequate substitute care for young children. This factor is not approaching resolution in the U.S. or elsewhere and is one that should command the attention of government and community agencies (Darling, 1973; see also Chapter II of this document).

Biological Differences Between Women and Men

Eleanor Maccoby and Carol Jacklin (1974) have recently published a definitive review of the research to date on sex differences. Their summary of biological differences, and their comments on society's response to these differences, were viewed as stating the essential facts with conciseness and optimism. The following statements derive largely from their recent book.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) identified three biologically-based differences between the sexes, and relate these differences to the development of traditional sex role stereotypes.

1. The greater physical strength of the male. Down through history the average male has been stronger than the average female.

2. The greater aggressiveness of the male, identified in research from at least age two onwards in all cultures. The male is more ready to use his strength (even when it is equalled by that of the female) to enforce his will, and more ready to resist with physical strength the dominance attempts of other males.

3. The female's child-bearing and nursing roles. Not too recently, child mortality was high, adult life expectancy short and contraception rare. This meant that for most of their adult years, women were involved in caring for young children and were necessarily dependent upon men for protection and economic support.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) contend that these differences no longer play the same role in the survival of the human race that they did in primative society.

For example, the male's greater strength and aggressiveness are no longer the assets they used to be for the pioneer male or corporate industrialist. In corporate decision-making and management today, decisions are often made by consensus in low-keyed styles. Corporations hire industrial psychologists to teach executives sensitivity, empathy and other interpersonal skills. The political arena is undergoing similar changes. The personal style of the successful politician no longer must be aggressive and physically powerful. Qualities of personal integrity, concern for minorities and the poor are coming to be valued as well.

Social changes occurring in relation to child-bearing and child-rearing are making the woman's role less dependent on men's protection and economic support. Lower child mortality rate and increased population growth in the U.S. has made it seem "immoral" to some women to bear children during all their fertile years. Instead, one or two children is becoming the norm, and adoption a popular alternative among younger couples. A longer life expectancy combined with having fewer children leaves a span of adult productive years free from child-bearing and child-rearing for most women. There thus is no longer a survival need for women to be passive and dependent.

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) conclude that this is a time for expanding work opportunities for women in all fields. The current requirements for success in business, management, law, science and politics include competencies women have traditionally excelled in, task competence, interpersonal skill and verbal argument. The authors coined the phrase "our sex-role-free ego space is expanding" to express the new possibilities for both men and women in contemporary society. They conclude, "women and girls are just as likely as boys and men to be energetic, independent, and exploratory, and that boys and girls are equally capable of close attachment to other human beings."

Psychological Differences Between Women and Men

Research on differences between men and women, boys and girls, presented in this section again has been drawn from the review by Maccoby and Jacklin (1974). The reader is directed to their analysis of over 1,400 studies for a more detailed presentation of current findings regarding sex differences.

Sociability and Affiliation

The common belief that girls are more apt than boys to seek out social companions, more concerned about being liked, more empathic, altruistic and concerned about helping others has no basis in fact. Research has consistently demonstrated that boys and girls are equally concerned about being with others and being liked by others (peers, adults, both sexes). Boys and girls have been found to be equally attached to and dependent upon their parents. Boys and girls, men and women are equally capable of empathic communication and empathic relationships. Similarly, both sexes are equally capable of altruistic responses. Whether a person goes to the aid of another person depends more on the type of aid needed than it does on the sex of the person offering aid. Taking care of young children (mothering) has been found to be a response equally present in boys as in girls, men as in women. When girls and boys are placed in a situation requiring care of younger children, no sex-linked differences are found in the degree of nurturant response.

Intelligence

There have been repeated demonstrations of the fact that no differences exist between the sexes in general intelligence. Boys and girls are found to do equally well on tasks requiring analytic thought and complex problem-solving skills. However, there are some differences on specific aptitudes. Girls and boys do not differ significantly in verbal, mathematical or spatial abilities prior to adolescence. Measures after age 10, however, consistently demonstrate that boys are better in math and spatial abilities, while girls are better in verbal aptitudes and abilities. These findings lend support to the view that the differences found in verbal, math and spatial abilities are "learned" differences, resulting from differential reinforcement patterns at home and at school.

Male hormones have been found to affect boys' spatial ability negatively. The relation of female hormones to intellectual functioning has not been researched. The relation of male hormones to deteriorated performance on tasks involving spatial relations is surprising, since other research findings noted above have established that boys perform significantly better than girls on these tasks with the onset of adolescence.

Learning

Evidence reviewed by Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) does not support the claim of Broverman et al (1972) that females are better at learning simple rote tasks, while males are better at complex problem-solving tasks. Nor that males are superior on reversal of habits tasks, while females are less flexible. Males and females alike respond equally well to conditioned learning in terms both of speed of acquisition and rate of extinction. No differences are found in rate of learning paired associates, and no differences are found in ability to reverse old habits or learning. Females and males are equally competent in learning complex problem-solving skills.

Dominance and Activity Level

Maccoby and Jacklin's (1974) review found sex differences in dominance and activity level related to the greater physical strength and aggressiveness of the male in childhood. Research indicated that boys rarely tried to dominate girls; however, boys do try to dominate other boys, more than girls try to dominate other girls. Dominance in adults (which is associated with task competence, persuasion and inspiration) was found to be equal for women and men. This finding has significance for women considering entering careers in management, politics and the law.

The belief that boys are more active than girls is qualified somewhat by research findings. No differences are noted in the first year of life. Boys are observed to be more active in the presence of other boys than girls in the presence of girls. Both sexes are equally active when playing or working alone. The reason for the greater responsiveness of boys to boys at an early age is not known. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) suggest a possible link with aggression and temperament. Research on the activity level of adult men and women is lacking.

Achievement Motivation

Maccoby & Jacklin's (1974) review of research on achievement motivation indicate that, as compared with men, college women have lower levels of self-confidence academically, as well as lower measured academic achievement motivation. Neither of these differences appear in elementary of high school students. It might be speculated that these differences appear in college as women approach marriage and career decisions and that marriage-career conflict may contribute to the lowered self-confidence and achievement motivation noted in college women (Drew & Patterson, 1974). Research on the effect of marital status on achievement motivation is currently being conducted by Drew and Patterson. Tomlinson's (1974) finding that married coeds had higher levels of achievement motivation compared to unmarried coeds also provides a promising research direction.

Harmon (1972) found it difficult to predict the stability of career choice for college coeds. She found that women who aspired to high level careers in their freshman year often changed their choices to less demanding careers by the time they were seniors. Harmon hypothesized that lack of reinforcement in the environment for their high aspirations indirectly reinforced lower career aspiration levels for these women. Hawley (1972) found that college women were influenced to raise or lower their aspiration level, depending on whether or not the attitudes of men toward working women were positive or negative.

Horner (1972) has researched avoidance of achievement in women (which she calls "fear of success") for more than a decade, and has documented the changing strength of this "fear" when competitive factors are varied. Horner's research suggests that we do not necessarily have to wait for a new generation of women to be resocialized for women to enter nontraditional work roles commensurate with their talents. Instead, it is possible to change a woman's expectation from one of "fear" to one of reward. Tomlinson's report that married women students with children had significantly lower "fear of success" than unmarried coeds leads to the inference that these women had less fear of academic success, having found a husband who accepted their academic aspirations.

Katz (1973) extended Horner's research by providing alternate prompting cues to her college-age subjects:

1. All Anne's class mates in medical school are men. "After first term finals, Anne finds herself at the top of her class" (quotes indicate Horner's cues); or
2. Half of Anne's class mates in medical school are women. "After first term finals, Anne finds herself at the top of her class."

Respondents under the second condition, both men and women, had significantly fewer measured fear of success themes than those subjects in the first condition. Katz concluded that the second cue provided the necessary social sanction for Anne's success in medical school.

Lipman-Blumen (1972) has proposed an operational definition of the lower aspiration level of women in her discription of a vircarious achievement "ethic" or value, whereby many women choose indirect achievement satisfaction, conditioned from birth to experience pleasure through the successes of important other male persons in their lives (father, brother, boyfriend, husband, boss) rather than directly through their own successes.

Lipman-Blumen (1972) found only 12% of a sample of married college females (N=634) were free of this vicarious achievement motive. Twelve percent of this group were pursuing a Ph.D. whereas none of those measuring high on vicarious achievement motivation were pursuing Ph.D.'s. Bettleheim (1969) has suggested that education is an enhancement for boys, whereas for girls it is a form of insurance--in case they don't make it in marriage. Therefore he assumed, women who enter "direct achievement" occupations experience a loss in femininity. Similarly, men who enter "vicarious achievement roles" such as nurse, elementary school teacher or librarian, experience a loss of masculinity.

In summary, achievement motivation in girls is similar to that of boys until the girls reach college. During the college years the achievement motivation of girls decreases. There may be some relation of this decrease with a corresponding reduction in academic self-confidence for girls in college, and the approaching possibility of marriage. Fear of academic and career success in college women has been found in varying degrees, depending on the perceived social sanction given to women's careers. Vicarious achievement motivation, namely, the desire to achieve through other important male persons (husband, boss, father etc.) has been found in many college women and appears to be related to their lower achievement motivation. At least one study found that married college women had higher levels of achievement motivation than unmarried college women.

Needed Research

Research on the effects of reducing "fear of success" in working women would be interesting to pursue. Clearly, the effects of the working mother on her children is a critical issue which commands further research on both positive and negative effects. At present, the weight of evidence succests that working can have either effect. Clarification of the factors contributing to positive effects on children of working mothers could pave the way for greater freedom of choice among women on the question of whether or not to work. Ignorance and outmoded social expectations frequently cause conflict and guilt for the working mother (or mother considering employment) which could be reduced given new evidence of positive or neutral outcomes.

Research on the personal factors which facilitate administrative, management and political roles, other than factors such as physical strength and aggressiveness, would help establish a firmer base for encouraging women to enter these carrer options. If it could be established for example, that corporate and political decision-making require (not just "benefit from") interpersonal skills, empathy, sensitivity and social concern, women might likelier view these roles as appropriate, rather than unfeminine and nontraditional.

Research on achievement motivation in girls and women is an area which holds promise for unlocking women's underused talents. Identification of the factors which inhibit achievement motivation in women and the development of methods for removing or reducing these factors (i.e. fear of success, vicarious achievement motivation, home-career conflict) is an urgent research need.

IV. THE COUNSELOR

What's in this Section

This chapter of the Sourcebook discusses counseling theory and techniques for a variety of the particular counseling problems presented by women and girls. It stresses counseling for career development in a framework that focuses on increasing the career options open for women and girls. Various unique aspects of the career development of girls and discussed, and an emphasis is placed on planning for multiple roles. In addition, problems experienced by several subpopulations of girls and women -- minority women, divorcees and widows, reentry women, and career changers -- are highlighted. This section also discusses means for facilitating attitude changes in girls and women.

The counselor is referred to Chapter V for a discussion of means for increasing civil rights awareness in girls and women. That chapter presents a summary of the recent legislation related to women's equal educational and employment opportunities, and their civil rights under the law. The review includes information about whom to contact when a legal right appears to have been violated and describes procedures for increasing civil rights awareness for different subgroups of women.

Appendix P presents a brief statement about sex discrimination that counselors may wish to give women and girls who are seeking information about their rights.

Every Woman Has These Counseling Needs

That the career development of women differs from that of men has been documented in research (e.g., Harmon, 1974; Astin & Myint, 1971; Super, 1957 & 1969; Tiedeman & Matthews, 1964; Tyler, 1954; Terman and Miles, 1936). The implications of these differences, however, have not been clearly delineated for counselors. Here, we will restrict our discussion to those implications which are supported by the evidence.

Theories of Career Development in Girls and Women

There are three theories of career development in women which have particular relevance to the current needs of women. The developmental theories (Super, 1957; O'Hara & Tiedeman, 1963) contribute an understanding of differing career patterns for women, and of the developmental tasks which may occur at any time in life and are especially relevant to understanding the needs of adolescent girls, the career changer and reentry woman. The sociological theories of career development (e.g., Psathas, 1968; Osipow, 1973) emphasize the desirability of teaching needed skills and of programmatic change in institutions and in communities. The personality theories of career development (e.g., Holland, 1973; Roe, 1956; Hoppock, 1967) stress the role of psychological needs in career choice and occupational satisfaction.

The developmental theories provide a useful diagnostic and prescriptive tool for the career counselor of women. Schlossberg (1972) adapted the O'Hara and Tiedeman (1963) paradigm of career development to the needs of women, pointing to its particular usefulness in determining whether a woman is primarily in an exploratory or implementation stage. Chart 40 presents Schlossberg's schema. Not only are elementary and high school girls primarily in the exploratory stage, but also many reentry women and career changers are appropriately in the exploratory stage and need to work through related tasks prior to implementing a career plan. Schlossberg suggests that many women need encouragement to dream and fantasize before they choose; they need to explore several options and to learn more about themselves before implementing any one option. The reader is referred to Schlossberg's original article for further discussion of the use of developmental tasks in problem diagnosis and prescription.

Developmental Differences

Researchers have suggested (Harmon, 1967; Campbell, 1974) that women's career interests crystallize somewhat later than men's and are organized in a different way. Ginsberg (1972), for example, noted that many girls cannot realistically plan on a career until they know what kind of man they will marry. A woman's financial status and potential freedom to continue her education and/or career are partly dependent on the attitudes of her husband toward educated working women. Because of this developmental difference -- the need to consider marriage plans and their relevance for career plans -- women may have taken longer to "crystallize their career choice." It is not known whether differences found in career maturity for boys vs. girls would disappear if girls were given an early opportunity to plan to synchronize (and synergize) marriage and career plans.

Chart 40

Counselor's Activities

Stage of Decision	Counseling Focus	Guidance Programming	Social Activism
Anticipation Exploration Fantasy Context in which choice emerges Crystallization Patterns emerge in form of alternatives Choice Specification Former doubts dissipate action	Help client clarify, consider alternatives; help client begin to see herself in relation to the world of work.	Provide programs to reach all students in elementary, junior, senior high, college, and adult counseling center programs; utilize role models, curriculum materials, and workshops to stimulate exploration.	Dispel myths about women perpetuated through education and the media. Work to change norms so that work activities are not sex-linked.
Implementation Induction Face to face with reality Reformation Transition Integration Maintenance	Help client implement her choice through placement, internship, and further counseling.	Provide programs at all levels. Build in opportunities for implementation, i.e., developing skill in applying for jobs, passing General Educational Development Tests, obtaining training.	Change opportunity structure for women by, for example, using Eyde's HEW program, enforcing the Civil Rights Act, instituting grievance procedures, revising the SVIB, fighting actuarial base of annuities.

Source: Schlossberg, 1972

Evidence in Society for the Dual Role of Employed Women

Many young girls are growing up in the 1970's, expecting to marry and raise a family and only work occasionally, or if they have to. These girls may experience a rude awakening once they have raised their families, and find they have a lot of time on their hands (Friedan, 1963), or when they find themselves divorced or widowed -- and also the responsible breadwinner for their family (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1974). Not only are more opportunities available for women to work today, but the need to work for psychological and economic reasons continues to increase. A majority of women today work for the same reasons as men (Economic Report of the President, 1974) and sixty percent of those employed, work because they have to (divorced, widowed, single, husbands earning less than $7,000.00 annually).

Women may still choose a "stable homemaking career," however. At the present time, about 50% of all women choose not to work (U.S. Department of Labor, 1974). Early exposure to planning for the dual role, for those girls and women who will choose not to work, may contribute to their freedom to choose freely, having been informed of all the options.

Homemaking responsibilities take a significant portion of the working woman's time (Astin & Bayer, 1972; Darling, 1973; see also Hedges & Barnett, 1972; Poloma & Garland, 1971). Researchers have found that working women spend, on the average, four hours a day on homemaking activities in addition to their work (Astin, 1969; Darling, 1973). Recorded rates for working women are comparable in Belgium, Canada, France and Japan (Darling, 1973). In contrast, working men's contribution to household chores, when their wives also work, was found to be unchanged (Darling, 1973), compared to their contribution prior to their wive's employment.

Given the evidence that more women are combining home and career, and that such a combination takes more time than the average man spends on his work and homemaking chores, a woman today has to plan carefully and efficiently to synchronize both roles.

Efforts to decrease the "burden" imposed on women by the dual role are being made in a number of domains:

1. Training of efficient household service employees. Teams of men/women may come into a house for an hour or two and clean intensively; these services are patterned after business office clean-up crews.

2. Dry cleaners, post offices, banks, grocery and department stores, etc., are beginning to offer business hours that permit the working wife to manage her responsibilities more easily.

3. Doctors, educational and health care professionals are beginning to offer services at times more convenient to the working mother.

4. Convenience foods (instant, frozen, etc.) and microwave ovens can cut the time of food preparation, provided the dollars are available to pay for these extras.

5. The federal government permits working mothers to deduct $400

of monthly child care costs on income tax returns for children under 15 years of age, where the parents do not earn more than $18,000 annually.

6. Maternity leave without loss of seniority and with full reemployment rights have been guaranteed women workers by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (amended, 1971). In addition, health insurance coverage is guaranteed women for pregnancy costs, proportional to coverage for men for temporary disabilities.

7. More men are beginning to share homemaking responsibilities for marketing, cooking, home repairs and child care (Hedges & Barnett, 1972).

The three unique career patterns described by Super (1957) for women, may provide counselors with a perspective that is more accepting of women who "interrupt" their careers and of women who select "homemaking" as the career of choice.

Super (1957) described four career patterns for men and women, and added three additional patterns relevant to women in particular. The four patterns shared by men and women described by Super were: stable, conventional, unstable and multiple trial. The additional patterns represented by women were: interrupted (for marriage or child rearing), stable homemaking (viewed as a career) and double track (where a woman continues to work while she is raising her family). Girls and women planning for their careers in the 1970's and 1980's might choose an interrupted, stable homemaking or double track career pattern, but they would choose knowingly, rather than 'fall into' one or other pattern by chance.

Career guidance for the seventies should have as its primary goal preparing young persons, women and men, for survival in the world of the future, not the present and certainly not the past. The coping skills needed for survival in the world of tomorrow will require more critical thinking and imagination than ever before. As super-technology and automation take over more and more of the routine jobs, the role of men and women in the world of work will become increasingly similar, focused on brain power and problem solving. Critical skills for a future oriented career guidance curriculum should thus include teachings persons how to: predict future events, make critical judgments and decisions, make 'tentative career choices,' cope with novel environments, plan for multiple roles, and adjust to changing career opportunities.

The Sociological Theory of Career Development

The sociological theory of career choice for women is particularly relevant for counselor practice. This theory emphasizes introducing change in the environmental experiences of girls early in their school life, providing an experiential base for changing sex role stereotypes. Early introduction of experiences and role models that would increase the awareness of girls about a wide range of career opportunities are encouraged. In addition, this theory supports the idea of teaching work-related skills in the elementary and secondary schools, as well as in higher and continuing education and government manpower program.

This theory, which is based on the work of sociologists (e.g., Miller & Form, 1951; Hollingshead, 1949; Psathas, 1968) is not very well-known, and yet has much to say to counselors working to help girls and women make informed career choices. The sociological theory has been recognized for some time as having the most relevance for counseling minorities (Osipow, 1968; 1971) in career decision-making. It's relevance for counseling women, however, is just beginning to be recognized (Psathas, 1968; Vetter, 1973; Harmon, 1974).

The reason the sociological theory has relevance for minorities and women is because of its stress on the environmental determinants of career choice and career opportunity, in contrast to the personal determinants stressed in the developmental (Super, 1957; 1969) and personality (Holland, 1973; Roe, 1956; Hoppock, 1967) theories. That is not to say that the developmental and personality theories ignore environmental determinants. They do not. The difference is primarily one of emphasis (Osipow, 1973).

An example of the effect of environmental determinants of sex role stereotyping in occupations is the documented fact of sex bias in the classroom.

Sex bias has been documented in required texts, in curriculum tracking, and in the attitudes of educators themselves. Recent legislation (Title XI of the Education Amendments) has called particular attention to training opportunities closed to either sex in public institutions, and has made such discrimination illegal. However, bias in textbooks and in educators' attitudes or behavior has no legal sanction at present.

Bias in textbooks has been documented in several studies (Child, Potter and Levine, 1946; Zimet, 1970; Bloom, Waite, Zimet & Edge, 1972; Potter, 1972). Saario, Jacklin & Tittle, (1973) conducted a thorough study of texts published by four publishing houses (Ginn, Harper & Row, Scott Foresman, and Bank Street School) for grades one through three. Their findings are presented in Tables 41 and 42. The Saario et al., data indicate that fewer characters in texts are female, especially main characters. Boys are presented in texts as demonstrating significantly greater amounts of aggression, physical exertion and problem-solving (Table 42). Girls were significantly more often involved in fantasy, carrying out directions and making (positive and negative) self-statements. Adult men were shown in significantly more constructive behaviors, both physically exertive and problem-solving.

Adult females were shown in significantly more conforming and verbal behaviors.

Bias in curriculum has been best documented in relation to home economics, shop courses and physical education (Sa rio, et al., 1973). However, indirect discrimination through differential reinforcement has also been documented in science and mathematics courses (Astin, 1973). Briggs (1974) found many trade and technical schools in Wisconsin were closed to girls.

Table 41

Saario, Jacklin and Tittle Findings

Total Number of Characters in the Sampled Stories Displayed by Person-Type

	Child	*Adult*	TOTAL
Female	241	124	365
Male	324	256	580
	565	480	945

Number of Main Characters by Age and Sex

	Female	*Male*
Adults		
Number main characters	7	33
Total number in stories	124	256
Chi square = 3.95; df = 1, p .05		
Children		
Number main characters	61	110
Total number in stories	241	324
Chi square = 3.49; df = 1, p. 05		

Source: Saario et al, 1973

Table 42

Types of Behaviors Performed by Children (C) and Adults (A) of each Sex (M/F) Given in Frequencies and in Percentages of Total Behaviors by each Age and Sex

	Frequencies and Percentages			
Behaviors	CF *n = 241*	CM *n = 324*	AF *n = 124*	AM *n = 256*
Nurturant	101 6.3%	169 6.1%	109 14.3%	156 11.3%
Aggressive	19 1.2%***	90 3.3%	14 1.8%	26 1.9%
Routine-Repetitive	131 8.2%	261 9.5%	94 12.3%	153 11.1%
Constructive-Productive	21 1.3%	56 2.0%	2 0.3%***	60 4.4%
Physically Exertive	60 3.7%***	195 7.1%	5 0.7%***	68 4.9%
Fantasy	39 2.4%***	30 1.1%	5 0.7%	14 1.0%
Directive	221 13.8%	282 10.2%	156 20.5%	212 15.4%
Statements about self – positive	53*** 3.3%	46 1.7%	11 1.4%	12 0.9%
Statements about self – negative	8 0.5%*	2 0.1%	2 0.3%	5 0.4%
Statements about self – neutral	50 3.1%	64 2.3%	15 2.0%	23 1.7%
Problem solving	39 2.4%***	118 4.3%	12 1.6%***	65 4.7%
Statements of Information	203 12.7%	372 13.5%	99 13.0%	73 12.5%
Expression of Emotion	94 5.9%	153 5.6%	36 4.7%	85 6.2%
Conformity	121 7.5%	170 6.2%	21 2.8%*	17 1.2%
Watching	61 3.8%	111 4.0%	15 2.0%	37 2.7%
Other Verbal	224 14.0%	389 14.1%	131 17.2%*	186 13.5%
Totals: Frequency	1,604	2,763	763	1,830
Percentage	90.1%	91.1%	95.6%	93.8%

* = $p < .05$

** = $p < .01$

*** = $p < .001$

NOTE: The percentages do not add to 100% because of the three omitted behaviors. Self-care, avoidance, social-recreational activities, expression of emotion, and the miscellaneous categories mentioned in the taxonomy were omitted due to their infrequent occurrence.

Source: Saario, Jacklin & Tittle, 1973

Astin (1973) found that boys began to perform better on math and spatial aptitude tests only after the onset of puberty. Prior to age 10-12, girls perform as well as boys in these subjects. Astin inferred that differential reinforcement led to the post-puberty change in performance. Physical education classes are different for the two sexes (Roby, 1974). Boys are encouraged more in competitive sports than girls. Girls who want to play baseball, football or hockey are often ridiculed.

Teacher and educator bias has been referred to above as including differential reinforcement for science, math and sports. Teacher bias was studied by Garman and Plant (1974), who replicated Broverman et al's (1972) study of counselor attitudes. Educators' descriptions of healthy, mature, socially competent persons was highly similar to their description of healthy, mature, socially competent males, and highly dissimilar to their descriptions of healthy, mature females. Women were viewed as healthy, in contrast to the "healthy person," when they were dependent, had a strong need for security, were talkative and neat!

The sociological theory of career choice has implications for changing the environment in which women find themselves and teaching them coping skills to deal more effectively with their environment. Instead of viewing the world deterministically, the sociologists would have us view it realistically, both in terms of present circumstances and potentials for change. Providing girls, early in life, with the information, experiences, models and skills that will prepare them to plan for their dual role of housewife and worker can help change the environmental determinants from those that restrict, to those that facilitate equal opportunity. For example, providing exposure in the elementary school to women engineers, scientists, welders, auto mechanics, policewomen, doctors, etc., may provide role models which would make these occupations more attractive to women when the time comes to choose (cf Bandura, 1969). Having discussions in the elementary and high schools of the changing roles of men and women in society, and of the need to plan for the dual role by both men and women could have a potent effect on role expectations for both sexes (Sarbin, 1954). Teaching planning skills, problem-solving (Farmer, 1971) and decision-making (Super, 1970; Krumboltz, 1969) skills early in high schools as they relate to planning for the dual role and making informed career decisions could help women feel less conflicted about home and career, and contribute to their ability to choose careers commensurate with their abilities.

The primary impact on the counselor in applying the sociological theory of career choice, rather than the developmental or personality theories, would be in the timing of environmental interventions. Early efforts beginning in the home, the nursery school and the elementary schools to change sex role expectations and to alert girls to the need to learn planning skills which take into account the dual role are the primary differences.

One suggestion for implementing implications of the sociologist's career development theory would be to offer school courses to both boys and girls that expose them to sex-role stereotyping and its harmful outcomes for both sexes. Other practical suggestions include having boys and girls take both cooking and shop classes together as is happening in Sweden. In high school, a one-semester course for both boys and girls on planning for multiple roles could be offered. For those girls found to lack adequate initiating and assertive behaviors, skill training could be provided as early as kindergarten, and offered much like remedial reading courses for those who need it. General textbooks should be purged of sex bias, and teachers provided with in-service training to increase their awareness of both the effects of stereotyping and effective means of combating it.

Holland's Career Development Theory

Holland (1973) has demonstrated that individuals express their personality through their career choice. In more than twenty years of research, Holland has determined six basic personality "types", which though rarely existing in pure form, account for major individual differences. Holland's types correlate highly with Guilford's (1954) personality factors, providing further evidence for the validity of this typology. Holland suggests that each personality type seeks a similar or compatible work environment and he presents evidence (Holland, 1973) demonstrating the relationship of work satisfaction to a close match between a person's type and his work environment.

The six types are defined by Holland (1973) as follows:

•Investigative: This category includes those with a strong scientific orientation: they are usually task-oriented, introspective and asocial, prefer to think through rather than act out problems, have a great need to understand the physical world; enjoy ambiguous tasks; prefer to work independently; have unconventional values and attitudes; usually perceive themselves as lacking in leadership or persuasive abilities, but are confident of their scholarly and intellectual abilities; describe themselves as analytical, curious, independent, and reserved; and especially dislike repetitive activities. Vocational preferences include astronomer, biologist, chemist, technical writer, and zoologist.

•Artistic: Persons of the artistic type prefer free, unstructured situations with maximum opportunities for self-expression; resemble investigative types in being introspective and asocial but differ in having less ego strength and greater need for individual expression, in being more impulsive, and in suffering more frequently from emotional disturbances; they are creative, especially in artistic and musical media; show aversions to problems that are highly structured or require gross physical skills; prefer dealing with problems through self-expression in artistic media; perform well on standard measures of creativity, and highly value aesthetic qualities; see themselves as expressive, original, intuitive, creative, disorderly, nonconforming, introspective, and independent. Vocational preferences include artist, author, composer, writer, musician, director, and symphony conductor.

•Social: Persons of this type are sociable, responsible, humanistic, and religious; like to work in groups, and enjoy being central in the group; have verbal and interpersonal skills; avoid intellectual problem solving, physical exertion, and highly ordered activities; prefer to solve problems through feelings and interpersonal manipulation of others; enjoy activities that involve informing, training, developing, curing, or enlightening others; perceive themselves as understanding, responsible, idealistic, and helpful. Vocational preferences include clinical psychologist, missionary, high school teacher, marriage counselor, and speech therapist.

•Realistic: Persons of this type are robust, rugged, practical, and physically strong; somewhat uncomfortable in social settings; have good motor coordination and skills but lack verbal and interpersonal skills; usually perceive themselves as mechanically and athletically inclined; are practical, stable, natural, and persistent; prefer concrete to abstract problems; see themselves as aggressive; have conventional political and economic goals; and rarely perform creatively in the arts or sciences, but do like to build things with tools. Realistic types prefer such occupations as mechanic, engineer, electrician, fish and wildlife specialist, crane operator, tool designer, and various technician positions.

•Enterprising: Persons of this type have verbal skills suited to selling, dominating, and leading; prefer to be strong leaders; have strong drive to attain organizational goals or economic aims; tend to avoid work situations requiring long periods of intellectual effort; differ from conventional types in having a greater preference for ambiguous social tasks and an even greater concern for power, status, and leadership; see themselves as aggressive, popular, self-confident, cheerful, and sociable; generally have high energy level; and show an aversion to scientific activities. Vocational preferences include business executive, political campaign manager, real estate sales, stock and bond sales, television producer, and retail merchandising.

•Conventional: Conventional people prefer well-ordered environments and like systematic verbal and numerical activities; are usually conforming and prefer subordinate roles; are effective at well-structured tasks, but avoid ambiguous situations and problems involving interpersonal relationships or physical skills; describe themselves as conscientious, efficient, obedient, calm, orderly, and practical; identify with power; and value material possessions and status. Vocational preferences include bank examiner, bookkeeper, clerical worker, financial analyst, quality control expert, statistician, and traffic manager.

No one person is a pure type, as stated above, but rather combines in some measure all types. Typically two or three of the types dominate as a style, while the others play a more minor role in the person's personality. In all, there are at least 720 possible compinations of these six types. Thus, Holland's framework provides for a wide range of variability within personalities and environments.

The importance for the counselor of Holland's theory is its implications for helping clients know and understand themselves as investigative, or artistic or social and then seeking a compatible work environment. A Social-Enterprising person, for example, would likely be very unhappy in a Realistic Conventional work environment. An Artistic - Investigative person would be unhappy in an Enterprising Realistic environment, and so forth. The Self-Directed-Search (SDS), developed by Holland, is a counselor tool for helping a client discover his personality type and a compatible work role. This instrument is discussed later in this chapter. The Manual (1972) for the SDS describes further the relation of the personality types to work environments, and should be reviewed by the counselor interested in using this technique with clients.

Harmon (1974) recently reminded us of the continuing importance of the personality theories of career choice. If psychological needs are ignored, efforts to direct girls and women toward new opportunities for self-fulfillment may be misguided and fall on deaf ears. Harmon illustrated her point by referring to women whose economic and security needs were prepotent over their needs for self-esteem or self-fulfillment. Other prepotent needs might be the need to please parents or significant others; and the need for affection. Counselors should be trained to recognize or identify such needs and to address them in clients.

Harmon's suggestion reminds us that personality theory of career satisfaction extends beyond personality type (Holland, 1973) to sometimes include needs. Some needs may be more or less transitory or changing (need for money, status, adventure), others may be relatively stable throughout life. Needs play a greater role in career satisfaction for some persons than others. The counselor should help clients understand their personal needs and the relative strength of these needs in order to help them make wise choices.

Special Groups of Women and Their Needs

Not all girls or women have the same needs for counseling. Differences exist because of experience, age and present circumstances. The varying needs of high school girls, college coeds, reentry women, divorced and widowed women, and minority women, require special understandings, information and techniques.

Counselors should be alerted that particular needs of given subpopulations of women will require more than a casual review of printed materials. Counselors should interact with representatives of each of the subpopulations and with experienced practitioners who have worked with such persons. Practice in identifying special needs through simulated counseling sessions could provide some insight to this aspect of counseling.

The Reentry Woman[*]

Women who choose to take time out to raise their families and then return to work or school present special needs to the counselor. These women return to the world outside the home often lacking self-confidence in their academic and work related skills. They frequently present special needs related to child care, financial aid, part-time study or work, credit for previous academic work, job search skills, age related learning differences, and practical planning skills to help them combine responsibilities for home and work. They may meet resistance in the home from husband or children to their work aspirations, and need help in changing attitudes or accepting the given hostilities. In addition to the section which follows, Chapter I contains a detailed discussion of continuing education programs for women which specialize in meeting the problems of reentry women.

The reentry woman has special developmental needs. It is appropriate to consider exploration of new career options a necessary developmental task for the reentry woman (Tiedeman & O'Hara,1963) After a period of absence from the world of work she needs time to dream and explore both herself and opportunities in the world of work before she makes the choice of a particular occupation. It is highly likely that the reentry woman's early academic training was not consistent with her potential, given the social sex role stereotypic attitudes of a decade ago.

---

[*] Women returning to school or to work after an interruption for reasons such as child-rearing responsibilities are referred to here as "reentry women."

Black Women: Special Needs

Available evidence in the literature (Gump & Rivers, 1974; Epstein, 1973; Astin, 1973; Sweet, 1973) indicates that black women both at the professional and technical level of career aspiration and at the poverty level have attributes which distinguish them from their white sisters. The literature also makes it clear that the attributes of the lower socioeconomic group of blacks varies radically from those of middle and upperclass blacks.

It appears that black women who grew up in the middle class, and are now in high school, college or established in their careers, actually have fewer sex role conflicts than their white sisters (Gump & Rivers, 1974; Epstein, 1973), and are freer from home-career conflict and "fear of success" (Horner, 1972). It thus may be that middle-class black girls and women might serve as role models for white girls in the coming decade, at least in certain respects.

At the lower socioeconomic levels, black women and girls have special needs in the area of self-confidence, motivation for work financial assistance and work related skills which are being addressed more or less successfully by Work Incentive Programs (WIN; Mason, 1973), some Manpower Training Programs (Goodwin, 1972) and Model Cities Programs. The differences between black and white women at the lower socioeconomic levels are less well documented, and may be more a result of what Oscar Lewis has termed "the culture of poverty" (Lewis, 1966) than ethnic differences.

The reader is invited to review the Monograph series published by the Manpower Administration, entitled Years for Decision, Volumes 1 and 2 (1974), if interested in greater detail about lower socio-economic black women. Unfortunately, these monographs are essentially descriptive, and although they present a wealth of data on black women, and other minorities, few conclusions are drawn, and the reader is left to speculate on his own. Other publications containing studies of interest are recent issues of Manpower Magazine and the Monthly Labor Review. (See Chapter VI for details).

Studies of the attitudes of black women professionals toward entering dentistry, law, college professor, or journalist, indicate that they viewed these as equally appropriate for them as for men. Black women are entering the professions almost as rapidly as white women (12 vs. 14.9 percent in 1973), but not more rapidly, as some writers (e.g., Moynihan, 1965; Bock, 1971; Bernard, 1966) have suggested.

Black women actually choose the traditional "feminine" job roles of teacher, nurse and social worker at rates similar to their white counterparts (Epstein, 1973; Gump & Rivers, 1974). Thus, they do need encouragement to consider less traditional professional roles.

In the crafts, black women are proportionately more highly represented than either their white counterparts or black men. Figures were 10.2, 5.3 and 2.7 percent, respectively, compared to the overall participation rate of 13.4 percent in 1970 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970).

Black Women and Home-Career Conflict

It appears from some studies (Epstein, 1973; Gump & Rivers, 1974) that black women are less conflicted in their dual role of homemaker and worker than their white counterparts. Gump & Rivers suggest that this difference may be due to a greater sense of responsibility for the economic welfare of the family on the part of the black women. White women are not typically expected to share the economic responsibility for the family (Epstein, 1973; Ginsberg, 1966). Both white women and black women feel equally responsible for the welfare of the family in the home, but expect different kinds of support and sharing from their husbands. White women expect to supplement the family income when they go to work, whereas black women expect to contribute significantly to the family income, if possible.

The number of black women who expect to combine home and career is double that for white women (Kuvlesky & Obordo, 1972). Table 43 presents these figures in summary form from three related studies.

Fichter's sample were graduates from a southern college, whereas Kuvlesky and Obordo's sample was high school sophomores in three rural counties in Texas. Despite the differences in the age and educational level of the black women studied, significantly higher proportions of black women plan to combine home and career. Other research (Gump & Rivers, 1974) indicates that three times as many black women expect to work full time while raising their families as white women. Gump and Rivers concluded that black women view

Table 43

Life Career Preferences of Black and White Women By Investigator

Career Preferences	Investigator	Race		
		Black	White	Other Whites[a]
Homemakers: work not at all, or only before birth & after growth of children	Fichter[b]	37%	64%	63%
	Kuvlesky & Obordo	45	80	
Work occasionally throughout	Fichter	11	10	12
	Kuvlesky & Obordo	28	10	
Combine part-time work with marriage & child rearing	Fichter	47	24	21
	Kuvlesky & Obordo	27	10	

Note.-Data for Table 43 were derived from J.S. Fichter, (Career expectations of Negro women graduates, Monthly Labor Review, 1967, 90), who studied approximately 2000 black and 2000 white 1964 graduates of Southern colleges and universities, and W.P. Kuvlesky & A.S. Obordo (A racial comparison of teen-age girl's projections for marriage & procreation, Journal of Marriage & the Family, 1972, 34.) who examined 99 black and 134 white subjects in rural Texas. Investigators asked somewhat different questions, necessitating reformulation of categories in what appeared to be equivalent terms.

[a] Other whites refers to data gathered by the National

Table 43 (continued)

Opinion Research Center's study of approximately 10,000 1964 graduates nationwide, reported by Fichter.

[b] Subtotals for categories given by Fichter do not sum to 100% due to the exclusion in this table of respondents indicating a desire for career without marriage or without children.

the role of wife and mother as more compatible with work roles than do white women.

Fear of Success, Black Women and Achievement Motivation

Weston and Mednick (1972) found that black women have less fear of success (Horner, 1972) than their white counterparts. This finding suggests that black women do not fear losing some of their femininity if and when they enter demanding work roles, either in the crafts, technical fields or the professions. White male professionals have been found to be more accepting of black female professional peers than of white female peers (Epstein, 1973; Gump & Rivers, 1974). Counselors need not waste their time trying to change black women's attitudes about career and loss of femininity, unless in individual instances this need is evident.

Career aspiration and achievement motivation have been found to be equally high in black girls as in white girls in high school (Gump & Rivers, 1974). In college, however, white women have lower measured achievement motivation than their male counterparts (Astin, 1972), but black women do not (Gump & Rivers, 1974). This finding would suggest that black women retain their academic achievement motivation through their college years; again, they might serve as role models for white college women.

Divorcees and Widows: Special Needs

Divorced and widowed women can rarely expect to be economically independent if they don't work. About two-thirds of these women have children. The 1972 U.S. Census indicated that there were more than nine million children living in families where women were heads of households. The census figures for that year also indicated that 65 percent of black families and 25 percent of white families headed by women had incomes below the poverty level. Ten percent of all families in America now are headed by women; 30 percent of all black families are headed by women. Although the economic plight of the women who are responsible for a family is greater than that of a widowed or divorced women living alone, both these groups of women have a primary economic need to work.

Harmon (1974) has suggested that it is inappropriate to counsel widowed and divorced women in terms of "self-actualization," self-fulfillment or for other internal reward reasons. Harmon proposes that Maslow's hierarchy of needs could be suggestive in this instance, indicating that until the economic, security and emotional needs of these women are met, they will be deaf to attempts to address their souls. Women who have a primary economic need can be helped to find jobs which use the skills they now have to advantage. When a job has been obtained, then the counselor may help the same woman plan ways of upgrading her training and skills in ways consistent with her aptitudes and interests.

A second problem presented by some recently divorced and/or widowed women is their sense of helplessness. They may have become accustomed to relying on their husbands for economic support, business decisions and other kinds of help which they now must learn to provide for themselves. The counselor may help individuals or groups of widows and divorcees learn to handle their own business affairs, and to gain confidence in their ability to handle decisions related to running a household. In addition, these women may benefit from being part of groups similar to those established for reentry women, teaching them job search skills (Block, 1969; Mindy, 1970).

A common third problem among divorcees and widows is that of finding male companionship and of learning to be and feel attractive to men. If a woman has been out of the dating game for some time, she may benefit from the mutual support of other women in the same circumstance, in regaining her self-confidence as a sexual partner.

The Equal Rights Amendment when passed will affect alimony and child support legislation with both positive and negative benefits for divorcees. The immediate impact will be their need to return to work sooner, and the strain of obtaining optional training before they enter employment.

Sex Bias and Counseling

Sex bias in counseling results from bias in counselors themselves as much as from society, the attitudes clients bring with them to counseling, and the materials and tests used in counseling. Attitudinal bias, like racial prejudice, is often at the unconscious or subconscious level of awareness. Bias in printed materials and tests can be combated when counselors are aware of their own biases and actively working to eradicate them or at least make them less likely to restrict opportunities for their clients.

In the section that follows, counselor bias is reviewed first. Next bias in tests is reviewed, and finally bias in printed materials is discussed.

Counselor Bias

A series of studies in recent years (Schlossberg & Pietrofesa, 1973; Broverman, et al., 1972; Friedersdorf, 1969; Hawley, 1972; Naffziger, 1972) indicate that both male and female counselors hold sex role stereotypes which affect their functioning in the counseling role. Stereotypes are held in relation to what occupations are "suitable" for females and males; psychological characteristics of the sexes; and differing career development counseling needs.

Counselors tend to view certain occupations as male and others as female (Schlossberg & Pietrofesa, 1973) rather than viewing an occupation in terms of the job requirements and the individual client's interests and abilities. Schlossberg found that both male and female counselors viewed engineering as a "male occupation." Both sex counselors tended to discourage female clients from entering engineering. Thomas and Stewart (1971) found that both female and male counselors responded more positively to female clients choosing to enter traditional occupations (i.e., teaching, nursing, librarian) than to females choosing to enter nontraditional occupations (law, medicine, engineering). These studies imply that counselors of both sexes need training and information on the current occupational scene.

Counselors were found to view the characteristics of a healthy person as synonymous with those of a healthy male, but differing in significant ways from a healthy female (Broverman, et al., 1972). Females were viewed as healthy when they were talkative, tactful, gentle, religious, interested in their own appearance, neat, quiet, enjoyed art and literature, easily expressed tender feelings, and had a strong need for security. Males were viewed as healthy if they were aggressive, independent, unemotional, objective, not easily influenced, dominant, active, competitive, logical, worldly, skilled in business, direct, sophisticated, adventurous, etc. Counselors tend to reflect the sex role stereotypes of society and to classify healthy men on different psychological dimensions than women. As indicated in our review of psychological differences, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) have demonstrated that there is no evidence in research for these differences, with the possible exception of aggressiveness.

The attitude of counselors about the need of male and female students to do career planning has been found to differ significantly (Friedersdorf, 1969). Both male and female counselors regard male students to be in greater need of career planning skills. Male counselors were found to be less aware of female clients' need to plan for the dual role, or of the special needs of reentry women students. Naffziger (1972) found female counselors to be more supportive of the special career counseling needs of women than male counselors.

Sex Bias in Tests

Bias in the use of interest tests in counseling has been documented recently in a series of studies supported by the National Institute of Education (NIE) Career Education Program (Diamond, 1974). As an outgrowth of these studies, guidelines for assessment of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest inventories have been developed.

These guidelines define sex bias as

> any factor that might influence a person to limit -- or might cause others to limit -- his or her consideration of a career solely on the basis of gender. (p. 1)

This definition expresses the primary concern that career options suggested by interest measures not be limited to the usual female occupations for women and male occupations for men, but that instead women be encouraged by the results of the inventory to consider any career if they are so inclined.

Holland has proposed an alternative definition for assessing sex bias in interest measures:

> An inventory is unbiased when its experimental effects on female and male respondents are similar and of about the same magnitude -- that is, when a person acquires
>
> - more vocational options
> - becomes more certain or learns more about himself (herself) and the world of work...
>
> The principles can be extended to any area of bias by asking what differences proposed revisions of inventories, books, teacher and counselor training would make. (p. 9)

The NIE Guidelines are addressed to test users in educational and employment settings and include the domains of career counseling, career exploration, and employee selection. The guidelines do not represent legal requirements, and are intended to supplement, not supplant the American Psychological Association's (APA)

Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests (1964).

The NIE guidelines have been presented in full in Appendix I of this manual.

The NIE Guidelines indicate an awareness that sex bias cannot be entirely erradicated from tests. They suggest that the counselor accompany the administration of interest tests with an orientation session, discussing possible influences on testee's scores of attitudes and sex-role stereotypes (See Guideline III:C&D). The counselor is urged to help testees view all occupations as potential candidates and to view virtually no occupation as exclusively male or female.

Sex Bias in Career Information

Recent studies (e.g., Birk, Cooper and Tanney, 1973; Briggs, 1974) have found evidence of sex bias in major publications describing occupations, such as the Occupational Outlook Handbook: 1972-73 Edition; The Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT), 1965 Edition. The occupational titles used by the U.S. Census publications have been similarly criticized. The presentation of numerous occupations as female or male was endemic in all these. Descriptions of the employment scene in various occupations (Occupational Outlook Handbook) were found to be unrepresentative of minorities and women. Study of the DOT six-digit code revealed a systematic underestimation of the skills required for occupations depending on competencies learned largely in the home, e.g., nurse, child care attendant, and nursery school teacher (Briggs, 1974). This classification was found to be particularly biased and discriminatory because it described many jobs at too low a level of complexity for them to be eligible for apprenticeship training. Nurses and nursery school teachers require at least three years of formal post-high school training.

The Manpower Administration has funded a project in Wisconsin (Briggs, 1974) to review the DOT classification and recommend new guidelines for coding. Wisconsin was able to reclassify day-care teacher at a complexity level commensurate with a "skilled trade" and thus made it eligible for apprenticeship training.

In addition to these commonly used resources for occupational information, many private publishing houses are currently producing films, occupational encyclopedias and occupational briefs. These are part of the flurry of material for federally funded elementary and high school career education programs. Almost without exception, these materials reflect the status quo, and are highly sex biased in terms of presenting certain occupations as predominantly male and others as predominantly female. The Science Research Associates Occupational Briefs (1973) and the Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance, Vol I and II (1972) were examined by Birk, et al. (1973) for bias and found to be overwhelmingly biased. White males were found pictured doing exciting, challenging, autonomous professional work. Women were pictured as nurses, teachers and secretaries. Women are waitresses, men are chefs.

Birk, et al., found 24% of men shown working outdoors compared to 4% of the women. According to Birk, the presentation of black men was very similar to that for white women -- the assistant, the service giver.

Birk, et al., noted that a few encouraging signs did appear from their analysis. Some women were pictured in nontraditional occupations, and occasionally men were presented as nurses, or caring for children.

Birk, Cooper and Tanney (1973) found that the Census occupational classification was highly differentiated at the upper end for professional and technical occupations, but that at the skilled trades, service and clerical levels it tended to clump together several occupations that actually were distinct. This bias tended to affect minorities and lower SES groups more than women, but to the extent that women are concentrated in lower paying jobs they are also discriminated against by this classification system.

Some improvements in the above state of affairs can be expected soon. The Dictionary of Occupational Titles is being rewritten for a 1976 edition and every effort is being made to make its titles and job descriptions sex-free. The Census Classification system has changed 52 of its 441 occupational title names (CACSW, 1974). For example, "clergyman" was changed to "clergy," automobile body repairman" changed to "automobile repairer," "airline stewardess" to "flight attendant." The 1974-75 edition of the Occupational Outlook Handbook does not reflect the changes in titles, pictures, or job descriptions recommended by Birk, et al., but a footnote in this publication indicates that the next edition (1976-77) will make every effort to be free of sex bias (Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Summer, 1974).

Tools and Techniques For Counseling Women

In this section, we present a variety of information about specific things a counselor can do to assist women clients in career development--and about how to acquire the skills necessary to perform these activities. Special techniques relevant to the three special groups of women we discussed earlier--re-entry women, minorities and widows/divorcees--will be presented in the next section.

Training in career development and counseling for girls and women ideally would cover at least:

- theory of career development in girls and women
- information on educational and career opportunities
- special subpopulations of women and their needs
- assessment/diagnosis of counseling needs of women
- guidelines for when to use individual or group counseling procedures
- practice in applying career counseling procedures
- methods of evaluating effectiveness
- methos for developing new practices

What follows will suggest resources and techniques to use in training counselors in the above areas, as well as describing resources counselors can use directly.

Guidelines for When to Use Individual or Group Counseling with Women

At one time, counseling was viewed as primarily a one-to-one activity. Groups were sometimes "resorted to" when time did not permit individual counseling, but groups were viewed as second-best. It has since become clear that groups, contrary to this earlier view, can be significantly more beneficial for meeting counseling goals in some instances. For example, when the problem being worked on is a shared problem, the group members can serve as models and reinforce each other, thus tending to facilitate the problem-solving process (Kelly & Thibaut, 1969).

Group counseling has been shown to be more beneficial when the following factors hold:

A. The problem is one shared by all group members

B. Some group member solutions may serve as models for efforts by other members

C. The individual members of the group are relatively normal, healthily coping persons

D. The problem solution involves learning new attitudes, information and skills.

Many of the problems faced by girls and women related to career development fit these factors. When an individual girl/woman presents the counselor with a problem associated with severe emotional disturbance, it may be that individual counseling will be called for.

Assessment and Diagnosis of the Counseling Needs of Women

Diagnosis of the special needs of women in counseling cannot be relegated solely to special diagnostic tools or measuring devices; it requires broad understanding by the counselor of the special needs of different subpopulations of women at different times in their career history.

As pointed out earlier in this chapter, career development theories can be useful to the counselor, particularly at the point of diagnosis. Developmental theory suggests that it is important to identify which developmental tasks would be appropriate for given clients. Super's Career Development Inventory (1974) has a new form for adults, which takes into account the career-changer and her potential need to recycle through early developmental tasks. The earlier version of this instrument, developed for high school students (available from the author at Columbia University) would be appropriate for younger clients. Crites (1973) has developed a Career Maturity Inventory (CTB; McGraw-Hill) for high school and college youth which provides some of the same information but takes longer to administer. Schlossberg (1972) suggested that counselors use their clinical judgment to determine which developmental task is appropriate for a given client. In view of the fact that both Super's and Crites' instruments were developed for both sexes, but no current review of their freedom from sex bias is available, it would be prudent to combine some form of clinical judgment with a measured indicator in identifying the appropriate developmental task.

Diagnosis of special skill training needs of girls and women (i.e., study skills, communication skills, job search skills, etc.) could be performed in several ways. Teachers or supervisors might report such needs to counselors. Counselors could obtain a work sample from the client that included diaplay of all required skills, and then remediate only those which are weak. By work sample is meant a sample of the client's written work, job resume, or evidence of ability to do homework assignments efficiently.

Finally, identification of special psychological needs of girls and women will probably have to rely on some combination of clinical judgment and measured need. Lazarus (1971) has developed an inventory to assess need for assertiveness training. The need to please others and the need for independence might be identified though judicious use of the _Edwards Personal Preference Schedule_, as well as insights the counselor gains by working with the particular client.

What to Have on Hand

It is useful for the counselor to have on hand in the office a variety of materials for use as part of the counseling process with women and girls. For example, folders of information on various non-traditional occupations for women, filled with pictures and biographical sketches of women in these occupations (as well as up-to-date information on job requirements and opportunities) can be handed to clients who are still exploring occupational possibilities. Having a current set of "how to" materials for conducting group career counseling sessions for girls and women gives the counselor flexibility in program planning and allows for integration of a variety of techniques rather than reliance on one or two. Resource books on occupational information, career development and sex role development are also potentially useful for checking out the facts, preparing for group discussion, or for simply handing to clients. A starter set of useful books is listed in Chapter VI. Counselors with limited budgets might extend the resources in their career center by requesting review copies of desired publications. If the publisher values the visibility given his publication in a setting which might potentially bring more sales of the book, a review copy may well be sent on request. Local libraries are also a potential source of resource material: ask your local library for duplicate copies of publications appropriate for use in your career center.

Presenting this material to clients in an attractive format, easily assessed and understood, is important if the information is to be used by them in their career development. Organizing occupational information contained in individual folders is sometimes a challenge, and should follow a classification system which makes client access easy. The classification system may be as complex as the use of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) six digit number for coding; or as simple as the use of the USOE 15 clusters with six sub-clusters within each cluster. The cluster system is described elsewhere in this chapter. Barbara Kirk and Marjorie Michels have prepared a short and, highly useful publication that outlines procedures for setting up an occupational filing system, Occupational Information in Counseling, (1965) published by Consulting Psychologists Press.

Career counseling for women would flounder badly without an adequate information base from which to direct girls and women toward more promising career options. Without information on which career options are expected to increase in the next decade, counselors might misguidedly suggest that women pursue training that would not lead to a job.

Chapter II provides an initial discussion of some of the career opportunities now opening up for women. The resource chapter (VI) provides the addresses of key sources of information such as the U.S. Women's Bureau which provide continually updated information on career opportunities for women.

Chapter VI of this Sourcebook lists career development materials, film and media resources, and various published sources for keeping current on counseling issues and techniques related to girls and women. In addition to such resources, a career counseling center for girls and women should contain: The Occupational Outlook Handbook: 1974-75 Edition, published by the Department of Labor. The limitations and strengths of this publication are discussed under Career Materials in this chapter. A good resource book on career development theory, such as Samuel Osipow's Career Development Theory (1973) would also be a recommended resource to have handy. The Dictionary of Occupational Titles: Third Edition (DOT: 1965), expected to be replaced by a new edition in 1976 can be helpful once a tentative career choice has been found, because it provides detailed descriptions of required personal attributes and job function for nearly 40,000 occupations.

The Occupational Outlook Quarterly is a useful journal published by the Department of Labor at a nominal cost, providing current information on special topics related to careers. It is a useful item to keep on a career center's shelves.

Some colorful occupational descriptions are available from commercial presses. Science Research Associates, for example, publishes a popular career series with attractive pictures. However, this series is expensive, and not as current as the information produced by the Department of Labor (i.e., the Occupational Outlook Handbook).

Local employment information is available from the state Employment Service office, and should be maintained on a current basis at least in summary form for easy reference in the career center.

The usual catalogues on training programs representing trade schools, colleges and universities, apprenticeship programs and manpower programs should be available to clients in the career center.

A quantity of tests should be kept in the career center files, with hand scoring materials or mailers for use with commercial scoring firms. Lists of tests for career counseling are given in the section in this chapter on the use of tests.

Information on civil rights for women should be available in order to inform clients of their rights and to support clients' complaints about discrimination, when these are appropriate. Chapter V presents an overview of the current legislative situation with respect to women. It is critical that information presented on the legal status of women be up-to-date. An excellent source for continuously updated information on this subject is the Project on the Status and Education of Women (see Chapter VI for details).

Career Development Counseling

The career development tasks of exploration and tentative choice require at least three kinds of information in order to make informed choices. This information is obtained in three stages (See Chart 44), either simultaneously or sequentially. Keeping Chart 44 in mind may help the counselor in providing girls and women with all the information they may need to make informed choices. For example, it would be easy to focus on giving information about career opportunities and neglect helping girls and women acquire information about themselves. Stage 1 in Chart 44 lists some of the kinds of information about the self needed to make a wise career choice. Research (Strong, 1955; Holland, 1973) has repeatedly demonstrated that satisfaction on the job, if not success, is related to a harmonious blending of personal interests and aptitudes and job requirements.

A major emphasis in this Sourcebook, and in this chapter in particular, is on expanding career options for girls and women. The Sourcebook does not go into detail on how to provide information about personal attributes to clients, with the exception of the section on the use of interest tests in career counseling. The counselor is encouraged to identify and use other means of helping girls with this self-awareness task, helping them to clarify their values aptitudes and temperament.

Chart 44

Career Development - A Three Stage Process

Developmental Tasks

Information About Self (Trait & Factor)

Goals - To Obtain Knowledge of:

- Interests
- Values
- Aptitudes
- Skills
- Needs
- Temperament

Information About Opportunities (Economic; Social)

Goals - To Obtain Knowledge of:

- Major Occupational Groups
- Role Characteristics of Each Group
- Labor Trends in Relation to Each Group
- Education and/or Training Requirements
- Educational Opportunities

Choice of Occupation to Explore Which Matches Self-Concept to Occupational Role

Goals - To Choose Tentatively

- To Select an Occupational Group
- To Explore Particular Work Roles
- To Know That She Has a Range of Occupations to Choose From
- To Hold Her Career Choice Tentatively
- To Explore Training Opportunities

Information About The Self

Career planning requires a careful assessment of information about the self as well as an assessment of the opportunities for training and employment in the environment. One procedure for this kind of self-assessment has been developed for older persons by Milton Hahn in his book Planning Ahead After Forty (1967). Planning was developed for adult men and women, and provides a set of self-assessment techniques and inventories which could be used by women, independently, when working with a counselor, or in a group.

A useful set of guidelines for self-assessment, developed for a career counseling course at UCLA Extension, follows:

1. What is your educational background? List formal education toward a degree, certificate or other diploma and informal non-credit study. List on-the-job training courses, favorite courses, or major areas of study. Include names of institutions, locations and dates attended. (Omit high school if you have attended college.)

2. What is your work experience, both paid and volunteer? Describe each position briefly, e.g., library research assistant or orientation counselor. Tell what the duties and responsibilities of each position were in as few words as possible.

3. What other experience have you gained from the circumstances of your life that might prove valuable? e.g. You grew up with a mentally retarded sibling, you've been through a divorce, you've coped with unusual problems, or you've been fortunate enough to have unusual opportunities. How can these experiences be turned to your advantage now?

4. What specific skills and abilities do you have to offer a volunteer director or an employer? Don't just list "organization" as a skill; say who, what, or how you organized.

5. Which of your past activities did you like best? Least? Of all "climates" you have been in (school, volunteer, hospital, fashion, business, etc.) which have you liked most? Least? Do you prefer working alone, with someone on a one-to-one basis, or with a group? Have you thought about standing all day on a job, or availability during school vacations?

6. What would be your ideal job, either volunteer or paid? Would it require further training?

7. List the names of two to five persons whom you could use as references.

Career Options for Women

A first step in expanding career options for girls and women might be to increase the number of career titles they are willing to consider. For example, if a girl comes into the counselor's office and says she wants to become a nurse, does the counselor provide the girl with information on how to obtain the necessary training, or should an attempt be made to expand the career options the girl is willing to consider?

One way to achieve this expansion is through the use of up-to-date taxonomic systems for classifying various general areas of work. For example, the recent emphasis on career education in the schools (Marland, 1973) has also led to the development of 15 career clusters by the U.S. Office of Education (McClure, et al., 1973). Charts 45 and 46 demonstrate how a career in the health or manufacturing fields can be subdivided in a variety of horizontal and vertical dimensions.

Giving the client in the above illustration the Health cluster to consider would be a useful way of opening up other career possibilities to this girl within her own already expressed field of interest.

The Occupational Outlook Handbook (1974-75 Edition) has clustered its 800 occupational descriptions into 13 fields. The information in this handbook may be used by the client to compare information on training requirements, personal requirements and employment trends within a given field or set of fields. The new edition of this Handbook expected early in 1976: is being planned to reflect less bias in occupational titles and job descriptions.

John Holland (1973) has provided another means of expanding career interest options. If a client expresses an interest in auto mech-

Chart 45

Health Career Clusters

EALTH

MENTAL HEALTH AND MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

These careers or occupations cooperate to solve problems that exert such a powerful, disruptive influence on some people's lives that they may bring on physical or mental illness.

- Psychiatrists
- Psychiatric Aids
- Psychiatric Social Worker
- Psychiatric Nurse
- Psychologists
- Psychometrists

MEDICAL AND BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE SERVICES

These occupations support and amplify the whole medical profession. These are medical fact finding jobs, the facts themselves being interpreted by the pathologists.

- Cytotechnologists
- Histologic Technicians
- Blood Bank Technologists
- Medical Technologists
- Biochemistry Technologists
- Microbiology Technologists
- EKG Technicians
- EEG Technicians
- Radiologic Technologists
- Medical Laboratory Assistant
- Physician's Assistant
- Medical Assistant
- Surgical Technician
- Nuclear Medical Technologists
- Veterinary Lab Technician

DENTISTRY AND DENTAL SCIENCE SERVICES

These professions and occupations treat ailments or abnormalities of the gums and teeth and try to prevent their occurrence or recurrence.

- Dentists
- Dental Assistants
- Dental Laboratory Technicians
- Dental Hygientists
- Dental Ceramists

GENERAL HOSPITAL AND MEDICAL OFFICE RELATED OCCUPATIONS

These occupations aid the health services in very general ways such as record keeping and supplies, etc. The personnel may or may not be certified or licensed.

- Supervisor, Central Supply
- X–Ray Clerk
- Diet Clerk
- Nursing Aid
- Central Supply Technician
- Receptionists

MEDICAL EMERGENCY SERVICES

These occupations deal with responsibilities for responding to medical emergency calls, evaluating the nature of the emergency, taking appropriate prompt action to reduce the medical hazards to the receiving station, and serving as technical assistance to the emergency room staff of general hospital.

- First Aid Attendant
- Ambulance Attendant

ADMINISTRATION OF HEALTH SERVICES

The occupations included within this family are concerned with managing and directing all aspects of health services in hospitals, health departments, and voluntary agencies.

- Hospital Administrator
- Medical Officer
- Administrative Assistant
- Accountant
- Admitting Officer
- Controller
- Credit Manager
- Director of Volunteer Services
- Executive Housekeeper
- Personnel Director
- Public Relations Director
- Purchasing Agent

PERSONAL AND COMMUNITY HEALTH SERVICES

The professions and occupations within this family are concerned with care of the sick and with the prevention of illness in homes, schools, clinics, and industries.

- School Nurse
- Public Health Nurse
- Public Health Educator
- Sanitarian
- Sanitarian Assistant
- Community Services and Health Education Officer
- Home Health Aid

PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCE AND SERVICES

The professions and occupations included here are instrumental in promoting well being among people in the neighborhood. They are involved in dispensing drugs and health supplies.

- Pharmacists
- Pharmacy Helpers

PROFESSIONAL MEDICAL SUPPORTIVE PERSONNEL

The occupations included within this family are not necessarily involved with direct medical treatment, but are most essential in the total picture of medical services. Their particular facet is an integral part of patient care.

- Research Nutritionist
- Dietitian
- Orthotist
- Prosthetist
- Health Physicist
- Audiologist
- Chiropractor
- Optometrist
- Pediatrist
- Speech Pathologists
- Manual Arts Therapist
- Music Therapist
- Occupational Therapist
- Recreational Therapist
- Industrial Hygienist
- Physical Therapist
- Contact Lens Technician
- Audiometrist
- Occupational Therapy Aid
- Inhalation Therapist

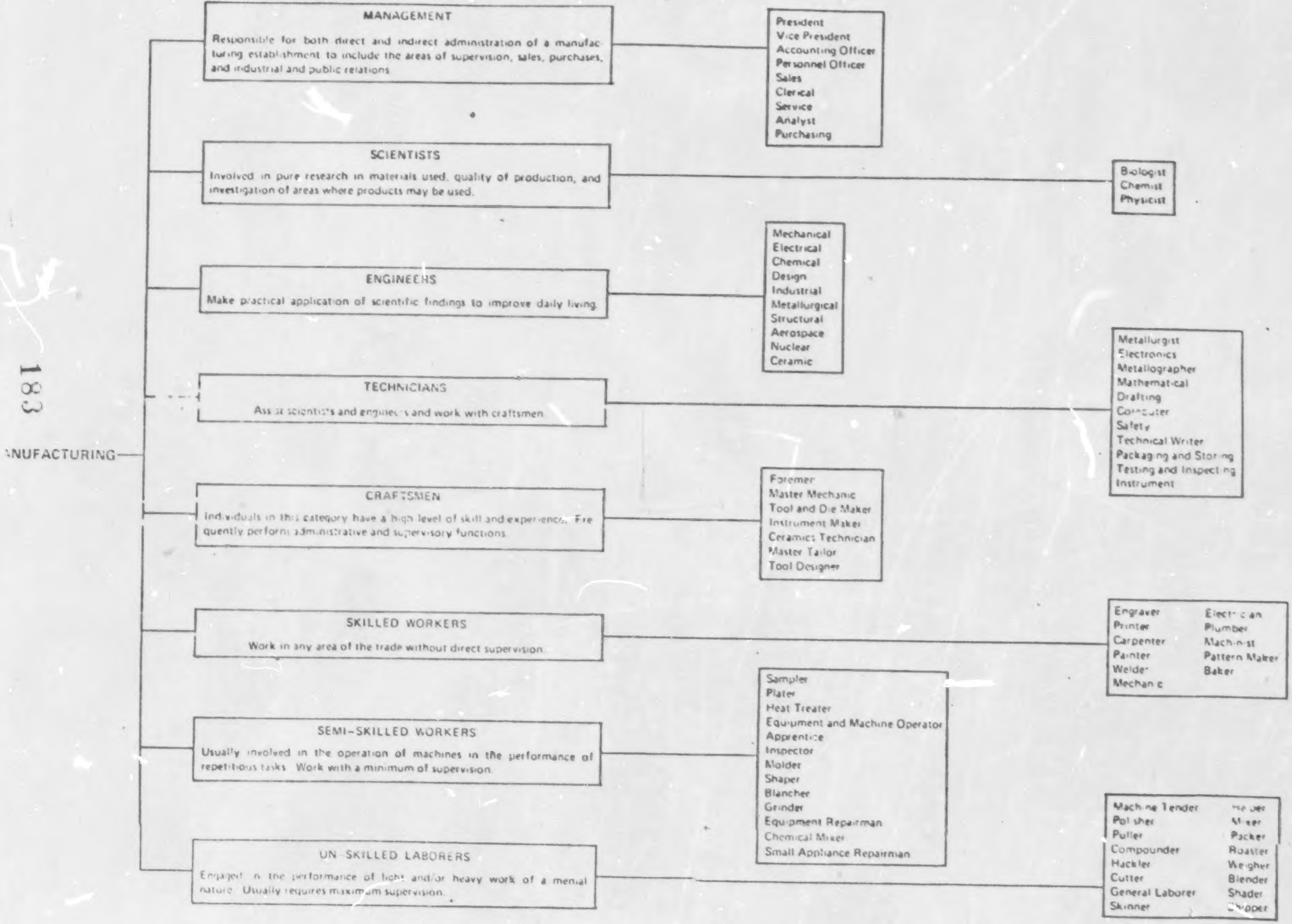
MEDICAL PROFESSIONS

The professions included within this family all require strict academic preparation within the medical field and licensure by medical boards. They are concerned with direct medical care.

- Medical Doctors
- Osteopathic Physicians
- Public Health Veterinarians
- Nurse Anesthetist
- General Duty Registered Nurse
- Licensed Practical Nurse

Chart 46

Manufacturing Career Clusters



MANAGEMENT

Responsible for both direct and indirect administration of a manufacturing establishment to include the areas of supervision, sales, purchases, and industrial and public relations.

President
Vice President
Accounting Officer
Personnel Officer
Sales
Clerical
Service
Analyst
Purchasing

SCIENTISTS

Involved in pure research in materials used, quality of production, and investigation of areas where products may be used.

Biologist
Chemist
Physicist

ENGINEERS

Make practical application of scientific findings to improve daily living.

Mechanical
Electrical
Chemical
Design
Industrial
Metallurgical
Structural
Aerospace
Nuclear
Ceramic

TECHNICIANS

Assist scientists and engineers and work with craftsmen.

Metallurgist
Electronics
Metallographer
Mathematical
Drafting
Computer
Safety
Technical Writer
Packaging and Storing
Testing and Inspecting
Instrument

CRAFTSMEN

Individuals in this category have a high level of skill and experience. Frequently perform administrative and supervisory functions.

Foremen
Master Mechanic
Tool and Die Maker
Instrument Maker
Ceramics Technician
Master Tailor
Tool Designer

SKILLED WORKERS

Work in any area of the trade without direct supervision.

Engraver
Printer
Carpenter
Painter
Welder
Mechanic
Electrician
Plumber
Machinist
Pattern Maker
Baker

SEMI-SKILLED WORKERS

Usually involved in the operation of machines in the performance of repetitious tasks. Work with a minimum of supervision.

Sampler
Plater
Heat Treater
Equipment and Machine Operator
Apprentice
Inspector
Molder
Shaper
Blancher
Grinder
Equipment Repairman
Chemical Mixer
Small Appliance Repairman

UN-SKILLED LABORERS

Engaged in the performance of light and/or heavy work of a menial nature. Usually requires maximum supervision.

Machine Tender
Polisher
Puller
Compounder
Hackler
Cutter
General Laborer
Skinner
Feeder
Mixer
Packer
Roaster
Weigher
Blender
Shader
Chopper

anics, the counselor could refer the client to Holland's (1973) Occupational Finder. This is a small booklet which classifies 456 occupations (representing 95% of the labor force in the United States) into the six personality dimensions of Holland's basic scheme. The client would find auto mechanic listed with 35 other occupations of similar dimensions (see Chart 47), differentiated along different educational levels.

A simple extension of expressed career interest is Holland's concept of "career aspiration," as represented in people's daydreams. Information on a person's "daydream" career is easily elicited by asking, 'If you could be anything you wanted, what would you like to be?'. The daydream career can be easily coded into Holland's personality types, and an additional list of career options presented the client for careers with similar codes. Gottfredson and Holland (1974) found "career aspiration" to be more predictive of career choice five years later than measured career interests.

Eliciting career daydreams is a time-saving procedure which may be as useful as administering an interest measure if the aim is increasing the number of career options a client can consider.

Stevenson (1973) has developed a matrix (See Chart 48) to give women interested in traditional skilled and unskilled occupational roles some insights about the options that fall in the same general skill level, but which pay better.

The Educational Career Exploration System (ECES) is a computer-assisted system of counseling procedures. ECES employs a method

Chart 47

Occupational Finder

Automotive Engineer (007.031)	6
Mechanical Engineer (007.081)	6
Engineer, Mining (010.081)	5
Civil Engineer (005.081)	5
Industrial Engineer Technician (012.288)	5
Mechanical Engineer Technician 007.181)	5
Aircraft Mechanic (621.281)	4
Air Traffic Controller (193.168)	4
Automobile Mechanic (620.281)	4
Watch Repairer (715.281)	4
Boilermaker (805.281)	4
Draftsman (017.281)	4
Electroplater (500.380)	4
Garage Foreman (620.131)	4
Farmer (Rancher) (421.181)	4
Lineman (tel. & tel.) (822.381)	4
Loom Changer (683.360)	4
Machine Repairman (600.280)	4
Machinist (600.280)	4
Maintenance Worker (899.281)	4
Millwright (638.281)	4
Mechanic, Radio (823.281)	4
Mechanic* (600.280)	4
Plumber (862.381)	4
Sheet Metal Man (804.281)	4
Automobile Body Repairer (807.381)	3
Compressor House Operator (953.782)	3
Engraver, Machine (704.884)	3
Forging Press Operator (611.782)	3
Heavy Equipment Operator (859.883,	3*
Roofer (866.381)	3
Upholsterer (880.887)	3
Logger (940.884)	2
Machine Operator*	2
Tool Crib Attendant (223.387)	2

Source: Holland, 1973

Chart 48

Most Popular Women's Jobs and Selected Other Jobs in same Occupational Level

	Women's Jobs		
Occ level	White	Black	Other Jobs
1	packers & wrappers (nec) laundresses, private household laborers (nec)	laundresses, private household chambermaids & maids Charwomen & cleaners	messengers & office boys, recreation & amusement attendants, ushers, carpenters' helpers, gardeners & groundskeepers, warehousemen (nec), farm laborers, porters, elevator operators
2	laundry & dry cleaning operatives kitchen workers (nec) textile spinners	laundry & dry cleaning operatives kitchen workers (nec) counter & fountain workers	truck drivers' helpers, metal filers grinders & polishers, oilers & greasers (exc. auto) garage laborers car washers & greasers, auto service & parking attendants
5	operatives & kindred (nec) typists mfg checkers & examiners	operatives & kindred (nec) typists waiters & waitresses	guards watchmen doorkeepers, longshoremen & stevedores, telegraph messengers, mail carriers, cab drivers & chauffeurs, bartenders, bill & account collectors
6	mfg sewers & stitchers attendants (hosp & other inst) practical nurses	attendants (hosp & other inst) practical nurses mfg sewers & stitchers	stock clerks & storekeepers, heat treaters & annealers, sawyers, stationary firemen, truck & tractor drivers, ticket station & express agents, shipping & receiving clerks
7	stenographers receptionists hairdressers & cosmetologists	hairdressers & cosmetologists dressmakers & seamstresses	cranemen derrickmen hoistmen, policemen & detectives, road machinery operators, bus drivers, barbers
8	welders & flame-cutters	- - - -	printing pressmen & platefitters, meatcutters, cement & concrete finishers, metal rollers & roll hands, firemen
9	bakers	bakers	construction & maintenance painters, carpenters, photoengravers & lithographers, plasterers, roofers & slaters

Source: Stevenson, 1973

for providing a list of career options to a girl who comes to the counselor with only a single career goal in mind. The client is asked to rate her interest in working with data, people and things on a five point scale, and then rank order them in terms of preference. She is then invited to consider the number of years of schooling she is willing to complete. Level one represents at least four years of college; level two, two years of college; level three, one year or more of vocational technical training; and level four, high school only. When she has chosen an educational level she is given a smaller list of occupations based on that choice. The ECES occupational classification system is an adaptation of Roe's (1957) field and level classification, using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) data, people and things classification of 'field' to permit occupations listed to be cross coded to the DOT for immediate reference there (or to the Occupational Outlook Handbook, which is also coded to the DOT).

Use of Tests In Counseling to Increase Career Options

Interest measures have been used for more than half a century (Harmon, 1974) but only recently has their use shifted from one of predicting occupational satisfaction to one of expanding occupational choices through suggesting new career options to explore (Goldman, 1972; Harmon, 1974; Cole, 1974; Holland, 1974). Research by Dolliver (1969) and Gottfredson and Holland (1974) more recently has demonstrated a high correlation between verbally expressed interests and those measured by tests. Measured interests take more time to assess than expressed career interests, but may be particularly useful for three types of women/girls: 1) those who lack confidence in their expressed choices; 2) those who are very vague about what they want to do; and 3) those whose expressed interests appear inappropriate because they do not reflect the apparent abilities of the person or the person's personality (in the judgment of the counselor). In these instances, a list of career options obtained from measured interests should encourage exploration of new career options.

Once it is determined that measuring vocational interests might be a useful step for a particular client or group of clients, the counselor must then select the best instrument for this purpose. In July, 1974, NIE's Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories, mentioned earlier in this chapter, was published to assist counselors in determining whether a particular interest measure might be useful for measuring the career-related interests of girls and women. Appendix I presents the Guidelines in their entirety.

A novel feature of these new Guidelines is the set of suggestions they contain for "orienting" women clients to the limitations and sex bias in the test before administering it (III:C&D). Women and girls should be encouraged, for example, to view all occupations as potential options, and not to view some occupations as male and others as female. Women and girls should also be encouraged to express their career interests freely, disregarding (at this stage) their real-life responsibilities and priorities directed toward homemaking and marriage.

In Section III:N, the NIE Guidelines states that a counselor should make it clear to the client that interest inventory scores provide only one kind of information needed to make a career choice. Career development theory suggests that career choice is a process (Super, 1957) and that many kinds of experiences and information about the self and the world of work and the social environment contribute to the completion of this choice process. Thus, the Guidelines stresses that test information by itself should never be used for making career decisions.

Burnett (1974), in a survey of 143 city/county school systems, found that interest inventories were rarely used to predict choice of college major for high school students, or to encourage students to choose particular majors. Increasingly, schools use interest inventories only for special purposes rather than for massive group testing. For example, if a student requested help in relating his interests to different occupational fields, he might be given an interest inventory along with information about occupational requirements. NIE's Guidelines are intended to assist counselors in assessing available inventories for sex bias and to help them choose which ones to use for their client needs. No attempt has been made in this Sourcebook to evaluate the different interest measures currently available. The reader is referred to Diamond (1974) for a thorough coverage of the issues involved in sex bias in interest measurement. A few of the more frequently used interest inventories are described briefly below.

Interest Measures for High School Girls

The ACT Vocational Interest Profile (American College Testing Program, 1972) is intended for students planning to enroll in two-year community college programs. The inventory yields eight interest scores related to eight work environments and profiles are accompanied by a detailed booklet that interpreting scores for the student. Separate norms are provided for girls and boys.

The Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (KOIS) is intended for college bound high school girls and boys and college women and men it yields scores for 60 occupations and for 30 college majors. The KOIS presents norms for boys and girls separately for each scale, and scores are provided for all scales for girls and boys in the current form (Kuder, 1974).

The Ohio Vocational Interest Survey (OVIS, 1970) is a widely used interest inventory for high school girls and boys. This inventory is based on three interest groupings: data; people and things (as used in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles). It yields scores on 24 scales representing various intensities of interest in working with data, people and things.

The Self-Directed-Search (SDS) was developed by Holland (1972) for use with persons age 12 and over. The SDS yields summary scores based on Holland's six personality interest types. The summary score combines self-estimates of interests and competencies. The SDS is hand-scored, and does not require separate norms for girls and boys. It relates raw scores to scores obtained by persons employed in various occupations in which employed persons score in a similar fashion.

Interest Inventories for College Students and Adult Women

Three interest inventories available for use with college women and adult women are the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII, 1974), the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (KOIS, 1974;) and Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS, 1972). Another major instrument, the Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory (MVII, 1965) was designed for non-professional men only. Since the KOIS and the SDS were described above only the SCII will be discussed here.

The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory replaces the Strong Vocational Interest Blanks for men and women, has one form for sex, and separate male and female norms. The SCII adds eight new occupational scales for women: college professor, credit manager, dental hygienist, optometrist, pharmacist, physicist, veterinarian and advertising executive.

It provides three different types of interest information: 1) general occupational themes based on John Holland's (1973) six personality types; 2) basic interest scales -- 23 scales grouped according to Holland's six personality types; and 3) 124 occupational scales coded to Holland's six personality types. The SCII manual points out that sometimes a person will obtain different Holland codes for one or other of the profiles. Such inconsistencies, it is suggested, provide the counselor with the opportunity to explore the client's interests further.

29 SCII occupational scales are presented in pairs, one male, the other female. Several of these pairs do not fall into identical

Holland personality types. For example, male Dietician received a "realistic" code and female Dietician received an "investigative" code. Since a female client would obtain scores on both the male and female scale for these occupations, these differences in personality types could be discussed to encourage women to enter nontraditional occupations, even though their measured interests do not match those of men employed in the occupation.

Use of Aptitude Tests in Career Counseling for Women

Guidelines for dealing with possible sex bias in aptitude testing have not been developed. However, the existence of cultural bias has been well documented (e.g., Tittle, et al., 1974) and the guidelines for use of aptitude tests with minorities have some relevance for their use with women. For example, differential reinforcement and thus experience with math and science for girls and boys contributes to differential performance after puberty (10-12 years) on tests of mathematical achievement and aptitude tests for spatial relationships (Astin, 1972). Verbal aptitude test norms favor girls, possibly for similar reasons. Such differences suggest that counselors view grades and aptitute tests scores on math and science for girls with some reserve, and not use these scores to discourage girls from entering careers in science and engineering if they are so inclined.

The recent report on Women and Educational Testing (Tittle, et al., 1974) indicated that research is needed to determine how and how much college admissions achievement testing may discriminate against girls and women.

Providing Exposure to New Career Models

Providing models of desired behavior has been found to be a powerful way to change expectations and behavior (Bandura, 1969). If counselors desire to increase the number of women entering nontraditional occupations, they do not have to wait for the resocialization of a new generation. Counselors can present women, as models, in nontraditional occupations and influence the behavior of women and girls to view these occupations more favorably. Female models in nontraditional occupational roles may provide a degree of social sanction to these roles (Katz, 1973) which has a more powerful effect than typical role models have demonstrated.

In a recent study, Plost (1974) found that presenting a female model in a career film presentation significantly increased the career interest of eighth grade girls compared to the interest expressed when they viewed the same film with a male model. Each film depicted a Systems Analyst and a Computer Software Designer, but the sex of the models was reversed. The ten-minute film, "Careers in the Computer Age," was presented to 20 eighth grade classes randomly assigned to receive one or other of the two versions.

Women may be presented in nontraditional roles directly, through observation, participation in part-time work or interview, or they may be presented indirectly through film, group exploration and discussion, and printed materials. Each of these methods of presenting new role models for women will be discussed briefly in the sections which follow.

The counselor can use role-modeling--presenting women in nontraditional occupations--to encourage girls and women who might never have considered these occupations before to become more positively attracted to them. Modeling has been found to be an effective source of motivation (Bandura, 1969) when the model has credibility for the client as a peer or as someone to be looked up to. For example, Krumboltz and Thoresen (1969) found that presenting clients with peer models who were actively exploring new occupations increased clients' information-seeking behavior.

Chapter II of this manual discusses in detail several opportunities for women in nontraditional roles in the skilled trades, and in the professions. Occupations such as welder, carpenter, engineer, and physicist are some examples of nontraditional roles. Counselors will sometimes be asked if they think such roles are "appropriate" for women and girls. At other times, their students and clients will not ask, and it will then be the responsibility of the counselor to expand the career options being considered to include the nontraditional ones. Providing exposure to and sanction for nontraditional careers for women is appropriate for elementary school children, high school students, college students and adult women.

Live Models

Public schools and colleges may easily arrange to invite women who are happily employed in nontraditional occupations to speak to small or large groups of students. High schools are a natural for presenting a series of women speakers representing the women in engineering, welding, policework, etc. When the occasion permits, a visit to nontraditional career women in their place of employment could be valuable.

Women and girls interested in a particular nontraditional career should be encouraged to talk with women now employed in that career. The counselor could help arrange such meetings. Perhaps the best exposure to nontraditional careers for young women would be for them to try part-time work in the field that interests them -- after school, on weekends or during the summer.

The counselor herself/himself may help by showing enthusiasm and encouragement for nontraditional occupations for women. By being enthusiastic, rather than "raising eyebrows," counselors can provide social sanctions for the career aspirations of women that lead them in nontraditional directions.

Films Present Women in New Roles

At the time of this writing there are at least three films available to counselors which present women in nontraditional career roles:

1. Hard hats...High Heels, is a color film concerning women in the construction industry.

2. Never Underestimate the Power of a Woman, is a 1974 color film presenting women in work roles such as auto mechanic, telephone lineman, and welder.

3. The Women's Prejudice Film (1974) is a 20-minute color film, starring Susan Oliver, produced by Sandler Institute Films, Inc. It depicts myths and cliches as they relate to today's work situations for men and women, and presents women in several nontraditional skilled trades, services and professions.

Exposure to New Career Models Through Printed Materials

Counselors, as suggested above, should have on hand in their office or in the career center a variety of printed materials about occupations for women to use. Particular attention should be paid to collecting illustrative materials on non-traditional roles. For example, folders of information on women lawyers, doctors, engineers, construction workers, welders, policewomen, etc. Many include pictures of women at work in these occupations and biographcal sketches with highlights of their careers. Sources for collecting such materials are suggested below. In addition, local newspapers and magazines, and national professional associations, offer rich sources in illustrative and anecdotal material.

Printed materials are not as powerful motivators as live role models, however, and are therefore best used to supplement interviews, films, speakers and field trips to observe women in atypical career roles. The counselor may profitably use printed materials on non-traditional careers for women when conducting group career counseling sessions, or for individual client exploration.

Detailed information on careers in printed form should be given to girls and women preferably after initial interest has been created; otherwise, printed information may seem boring and "turn them off" to further exploration.

There is a variety of published materials presenting women in nontraditional roles. The Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, has a continuously updated set of publications that will be most useful to the counselor in this regard. The current list of publications from the Women's Bureau is presented in Chapter VI of this manual. In the list's section titled Career Opportunities for Women, there are given publications on women in the skilled trades, careers for women in the 70's, and a series, "Why Not be -- an Apprentice? (Engineer? Medical Technologist? Technical Writer? Urban Planner? Optometrist?)" Most of these publications are available free or for a nominal fee from the Women's Bureau.

Catalyst publications has a self-guidance series for women, an education opportunities series, and a career opportunities series detailing career paths in 27 fields, many of them nontraditional.

Students at Stanford University also have prepared publications for women in law, engineering and medicine. These publications are available by writing to the appropriate department of the university in Stanford, California.

The Monthly Labor Review (May, 1974) was entirely devoted to women in the professions, skilled trades, unions and other occupations. Articles were optimistic in tone, and presented opportunities for women in nontraditional fields with statistics to support their argument. This issue is available from the Department of Labor's Regional Offices for $1.40.

The Occupational Outlook Handbook:1974-75 Edition, published by the Department of Labor, presents detailed descriptions of 800 occupations. The counselor might refer a client to this source of information on training, job requirements and employment trends after they have reviewed the special career information prepared especially with women in mind. Since the material prepared especially for women is limited at the present time it will not always be possible to find a client's occupational description in this literature. The Occupational Outlook Handbook is an excellent supplementary source, provided it is used by the counselor in ways which limit its male bias (Birk, et al., 1973), documented elsewhere in this manual.

The Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) (1965 Edition) should not be neglected as a source of information on the personal requirements for each job. A revised DOT is expected in late 1976. The DOT may be more useful following exploration rather than during exploration. The counselor might give a woman the DOT when a tentative choice has been made, since it provides detailed information on the personal requirements needed for a particular occupation.

Group Discussion and Exploration

Birk and Tanney of the University of Maryland have developed a curriculum for expanding nontraditional career role awareness in high school girls, college women and/or adult women (first presented at the American Personnel and Guidance Association Regional Convention in Atlanta, May, 1973). The curriculum is presented as a three-day workshop or conference, but could easily be adapted to a one hour per week/six week curriculum in a school, college or continuing education program.

The first day consists of playing the Living Careergram. The goal of the game is to demonstrate to participants whether or not they envision themselves in career roles (or aiming toward career roles) which are acceptable or unacceptable for women, according to society's present standards. After playing the game for about 20 minutes, participants are given an Opinionnaire to complete which asks them to judge statements about women as 'myths' or 'facts.' The statements are taken from the U.S. Women's Bureau (1974) publication, The Myth and the Reality. After participants complete the Opinionnaire, a discussion takes place in which the 'facts' are presented for each myth.*

Day number two's exercise is designed to sensitize participants to changes that might occur within the next five years in American society concerning human relationships, and to alert participants to their own perspectives about appropriate sex role behavior. The exercise is played through the presentation of two hypothetical situations which each participant is asked to read, and then "complete the story." 15 minutes is suggested for completion of this portion of the exercise, with an additional ten minutes devoted to discussion by small groups of participants. The second exercise on day two is a role playing one in which participants describe another person in the group as a member of a nontraditional occupation.

---

*Presented at the beginning of this volume.

The third day in the Birk and Tanney curriculum is called "Bringing it All Home." During this exercise, men and/or boys are invited to participate with the women, the goal being to sensitize participants to stereotypes about men, women, parents, children, counselors, and teachers. The exercise is conducted through role playing with scripts provided players for two hypothetical situations. Role playing is followed by discussion. Endless variations of the situations, fantasies and Birk and Tanney scripts could be developed by counselors and group leaders to provide women or girls an extended experience in attitude change toward women's work roles.

Work Experience

Young girls need a variety of exploratory work experiences, in addition to other types of exposure to give them a taste of what it is actually like on the job. A rule of thumb for providing variety might be to use Holland's (1973) six work environments, and help each girl gain access to as many of these work environments as possible.

Part-time work on week-ends and summers is one means of obtaining work experience. Work study programs in high schools and colleges are another. A third is obtaining work experience through volunteer work in a variety of settings. Experience can be obtained by the older woman returning to work part-time or through volunteer activities.

Professional Volunteerism

Many American communities recently have established volunteer centers or bureaus to serve as a kind of "clearinghouse" for volunteer activities in the local area. These centers are designed to act as links between the volunteer worker and an agency needing help. The volunteer center may provide some of the following services:

- Recruit, interview, and refer volunteers to the agencies which suit their needs, interests, and abilities;
- Provide consultive services to agencies in matters concerning coordinating, training, and retention of volunteer help (many agencies provide training to volunteers);
- Present workshops and educational programs for the community leading to more awareness of the volunteer opportunities in the community.

The organizations, individuals and causes often requiring volunteer help may include:

- youth and senior citizens, both directly and indirectly, including parole and probation agencies as well as the better known youth groups;
- health, including hospitals, clinics of all kinds, mental health centers, nursing homes, rehabilitation centers, preventive care, and veteran's care;
- social welfare, including family case aid work, delinquent children, unwed mothers, day nursery care, counseling, etc.;
- crisis and emergency care, such as crisis prevention and suicide prevention, etc.;
- education, including tutoring services, counseling, head start programs, teacher's aides, docent programs in the zoo and museums;
- urban affairs;
- civil rights.

Volunteer work provides a means for the young mother to keep her work related skills from getting rusty, if she plans to return to work when the children are older. Plans for obtaining academic credit for volunteer work experience were discussed elsewhere, and certainly make such work more attractive in terms of long-range career planning.

Women have to be taught to label properly skills they have developed in homemaking and in volunteer work. These experiences can be very useful to them in seeking employment, and should not be viewed as worthless remnants of their "wasted years." Competencies developed in planning and administering volunteer and family activities qualify as work experiences.

Although professional volunteerism has many potential benefits (i.e. providing work experience; bridging the child-bearing years; as reentry work etc.), it is not usually suited to satisfying long-range career goals. Volunteers on the job lack policy making and decision-making powers, and have less opportunity to shape their own work environment. They tend to be given odd jobs others don't have time for, and their work typically has less central thrust than paid work.

Decision-Making Skills Using Career Information to Make Informed Choices

Providing information and new experience in career counseling may be a wasted effort if clients do not know how to use the information to make informed choices. Recently, teaching decision-making skills has become popular in career counseling programs in high schools and colleges. Seven of these decision-making models were reviewed by Jepson (1974), who indicates that most models can be divided into two basic types: i) descriptive models, which use information for decision-making that is not entirely quantitative; and ii) prescriptive models, which quantify an individual's values, interests, aptitudes and skills and relate these to job requirements. Four decision-making procedures are reviewed briefly below, two descriptive, one prescriptive and one descriptive-prescriptive. For a fuller review the reader is referred to Jepson (1974), Healy, (1974) or Tolbert (1974).

Miller-Tiedeman (1974) has developed a high school curriculum for teaching decision-making skills, based on Tiedeman and O'Hara's (1963) career development model. The Miller-Tiedeman decision-making curriculum is descriptive and encourages the learner to become a person who shapes her own future, using reasoning, logic, and planned strategies for making choices. The curriculum is reviewed in the Journal of Character Potential (1974) and is available for use from the author (at Northern Illinois University, Dekalb, Illinois.)

Computer Assisted Career Counseling for Girls and Women

A promising computer-assisted counseling system, called DISCOVER, is currently under development, under a joint contract with U.S.O.E. and I.B.M. DISCOVER is planned for use with children in grades 4-6; 7-12; and with adults; however, only the 7-12 segment is currently being developed. This computer-assisted counseling system incorporates principles of career development derived from Holland, Super, Tiedeman and O'Hara and Roe. DISCOVER teaches the decision-making process based on the Tiedeman and O'Hara model, and the scripts promise to ensure that decisions are the client's and not the computer's. The aim is to enhance autonomy and sense of competence in the client, as she explores new information, plays a simulated career decision game, tries on any number of occupations in an atmosphere free from counselor bias, and works at values clarification and self-exploration. Holland's Self-Directed-Search is part of the system, and is preceded by teaching the participant the role of interests in occupational choice and the nature of the six personality types and related environments represented in Holland's theory.

Computer-assisted counseling has several potential benefits over purely human counselor-client interaction (Harris, 1974), particularly in its ability to store and retrieve millions of bits of information about individual clients, the world of work, and training opportunities. Other benefits include the ability to interrelate information about the client and opportunities to provide nonthreatening feedback in a descriptive (as contrasted with prescriptive) manner. The computers' capacity to provide graphic displays and visual images further enhances its potential. A fourth benefit of computer-assisted counseling is the capability of maintaining a record of the client's interaction and of providing feedback to the client on her current pattern of decision-making and problem-solving. Harris (1974) has reviewed computer benefits, the five computer-assisted counseling systems currently in use and presents the evidence available on their effectiveness with clients.

DISCOVER is being developed at Western Maryland College, Department of Education, Westminster, Maryland 21157, by JoAnn Harris-Bowlsbey, the originator of the older Computerized Vocational Information System (CVIS) which now has a nationwide network.

Martin Katz (1973) Educational Testing Service (ETS) has developed a prescriptive (quantitative) decision-making curriculum for community college students and adults. His procedures have been adapted for a computer-assisted counseling procedure, called System of Interactive Guidance and Information (SIGI), now being field-tested in several sites nationally. Reviews of SIGI appear in Jepson (1974) Tolbert (1974); and Harris (1974). The system is described in greater detail in an EDUCOM reprint available from ETS in Princeton, N.J.

Evaluations (e.g., Chapman,1973) of the effectiveness of SIGI for teaching decision-making have not provided solid evidence to date. The further evaluation being conducted during the field test currently underway should yield more definitive data on effectiveness or the lack of it. It should be pointed out that none of the decision-making curricula for career counseling have accumulated evidence for their effectiveness at present.

A procedure combining a descriptive and quantative approach to decision-making in career counseling was developed by Farmer (1973), entitled "Guided Inquiry Career Counseling." This curriculum is intended for both adults and college students, and teaches decision-making in a format which assumes that an individual's freedom to choose is enhanced given a wide range of quantitative and qualitative information on his strengths and weaknesses, and on opportunities and obstacles in the environment.

Three research efforts underway in 1975 with NIE sponsorship deal with career decision making. Chapter VI of the Sourcebook lists these studies, with addresses for obtaining more information. The Katz model of career decision-making described above, has been adapted for paper and pencil use in measuring the competency of high school students. Secondly, the Appalachia Educational Laboratory is developing curriculum materials for teaching carrer decision-making (including career exploration) to high school students. Thirdly, the American Institute for Research at Palo Alto is de-eloping a thorough review of the theory and research on career decision-making, including an evaluation of the current models in use by practitioners and counselors.

Planning for Multiple Roles

The ubiquity of working women who find themselves caught playing two major roles -- homemaker and career woman -- has been documented repeadtedly (e.g., Darling, 1973; Kievit, 1972; Astin & Bayer, 1972). Many women feel conflicted and guilty, if they work, about neglecting their children and/or the home (Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964; Morgan, 1962). Some women merely feel depressed and 'hassled' by having to do both. Reducing conflict and guilt requires demythologizing old myths, a topic discussed later in this chapter. Feeling less hassled and overworked requires better life planning and enhanced efficiency, as well as a showing of roles by both sexes in a marriage.

Training Counselors to Help Girls and Women Plan for Multiple Roles

Counselors will benefit from training in certain procedures related to preparing girls and women for multiple roles. Five suggested references having materials on planning for multiple roles are described below. Some of these materials are appropriate for high school girls, others for women who are married and who need help in efficient planning procedures as well as in conflict reduction. Counselors should be given training in meeting the needs of both younger and older women in this important aspect of career counseling.

Planning for multiple roles can be useful for the working women, the woman seeking to reenter the world of work or education, and the college and high school student in anticipation of a life which may include both work and marriage.

The counselor can discuss with girls and boys and women, both individually and in groups, attitudes about working mothers, in an effort to create more accepting attitudes. In addition, the counselor may discuss ways for women to find competent child care persons who will provide both continuity and the nurturant qualities needed for children in their care to grow both psychologically and physically. Briggs (1974) describes a plan in Wisconsin for training women through apprenticeships to become child care aides. These women receive Associate of Arts (AA) degrees, and are paid during their training.

Kievit (1972) reported that at least three curricula are available for high school girls and boys to help them plan for the multiple roles life requires of them. Especially during the high school years, multiple role planning activities and courses should include both boys and girls. Attitude change directed toward mutual, reciprocal relationships in marriage, should begin early and with both sexes.

1. Preparing for a Dual Role is a coed curriculum, prepared by Ruth Hughes and her associates in 1969. A description of this curriculum is presented in the Journal of Home Economics, Volume 61, 1969. This curriculum is designed for a month-long educational unit. Topics included are "costs of employment," "provision for care of children," and "money management." A set of slides accompanies the curriculum guide. At the time Hughes wrote her report, the curriculum had been tested with more than 600 high school students, who reportedly found it both interesting and instructive.

2. Preparation for a Dual Role: Homemaker-Wage Earner with Adaptations to Inner City Youth is a coed course developed by Dalrymple and associates (1970) under funding from the U.S. Office of Education. Topics in this curriculum include "skills for living" and "family and management as a homemaker."

3. Planning Ahead for the World of Work is a curriculum unit developed by Louise Vetter (1970) and is reported in the American Vocational Journal (December, 1970). Vetter field tested the unit with 9th, 10th and 11th grade students and found it to be most effective with 9th grade students.

No specific curricula for college students were identified by the authors. Planning for multiple roles in college could be included in courses and/or discussion groups on family planning and pre-marital planning. Ideally, such courses would be coed, to facilitate attitude and behavior changes in both sexes. A recent book edited by McBee and Blake (1974) may be useful at the college level.

Job Search and Job Keeping Skills

Career guidance should also teach clients skills related to obtaining and holding a job as a need for these skills evidences itself to the counselor. Skills should include:

- communication skills
- interview skills
- resumé writing
- getting to work on time
- ability to follow directions
- interpersonal skills
- study skills
- assertive skills
- time management
- establishing a personal resource network

The role of the guidance counselor becomes one of a teacher, who teaches problem-solving and coping skills to her clients.

You will recall that the sociologist theory of career development emphasizes the environmental determinants of career choice, and suggests that the school and community intervene to change the environment to increase the opportunities open to girls and women. Consistent with this theory is the early introduction of skills to elementary and high school girls that lay the foundation for needed job related skills. Such skills as communication, study skills, and time management can be taught in elementary and high school in preparation for job search skills requiring interview and resume writing.

Counselor Practice in Teaching Needed Skills to Girls and Women

Some of the identified skills needed by women and girls are job search skills, study skills, communication skills and interpersonal skills. Materials related to teaching each of these skills have been developed and could be used for counselor training as well as counselor practice.

Several skill training programs have been developed to teach job search skills to women. Counselors might be aided in developing similar service programs by the following:

1. Catalyst (See Chapter VI) has curriculum for teaching interested women how to write a work resume. This organization then circulates a copy to employment offices in areas accessible to the prospective employee.

2. R. N. Bolles' What Color is Your Parachute? A Practical Manual for Job-Hunters and Career Changers (1972).

3. Performance Dynamics, Inc.'s The Professional Job Hunting System: World's Fastest Way to Get a Job (1970).

4. Materials developed by UCLA Extension (1974) regarding the preparation of a resume for women are presented in Appendix J, along with a sample resume.

5. A trilogy of three job search skill booklets has been developed by the Office of Career Development and Placement (1973) at the University of Illinois, in Urbana, Illinois. These are available on request; they are entitled: i) "Preparing for the Job Search;" (ii) "Executing the Job Search;" and iii) "Securing the Job."

6. Krumboltz and Thoreson's *Behavioral Counseling* (1969) provides the counselor with useful suggestions for job interviews and resume writing for handicapped persons in more than 100 pages of suggested client interview rehearsal procedures.

Establishing a Personal Resource Network

Related to job search skills is the skill of establishing a resource network of friends and acquaintances who can serve as a referral source and provide introductions when needed. This job search resource is often overlooked by women, perhaps because they view it as "using influence" and therefore unfeminine. Helping women's counselors realize the benefit to women of such a resource network can be accomplished at counselor training sessions.

Study Skills

The study skills needed by women do not differ seriously from those needed by men, and materials developed to teach study skills for both sexes may be used. (Jones, Trimble and Altmann, 1970; Bates, 1971). At most high schools, college campuses and continuing education programs, provision is made for teaching study skills. Therefore, the counselor's role may be largely one of referral in this particular area.

Communication Skills

Communication skills include written and oral communication. Teaching written communication skills may be handled in a similar fashion to that of study skills, as described above. Communication skills (e.g., interview skills, receptionist skills, management skills, etc.) may be enhanced through role rehearsal and video playback. Counselor training sessions could include practice in training for these skills, Krumboltz and Thoresen (1969) have developed materials for training in interview skills. Loring and Wells (1972) have made available a training package for management communication skills.

Interpersonal Skills

Interpersonal skills may overlap somewhat with psychological skills as they relate to getting along with authority figures on the job, as well as peers and subordinates. To the degree that the client is not seriously disturbed, but rather needs practice in the appropriate responses for different interpersonal exchanges on the job, these skills can be taught in a direct way. Loring and Wells (1972) have suggested a response repertoire for women in a variety of situations they might encounter on the job. Scripts might be prepared representing these situations, and counselor practice sessions designed around teaching acceptable responses to them.

Assertiveness Training

Assertiveness training is intended to help people become the active champion of their own human rights. It can provide a valuable alternative behavior style for women who are depressed and/or angry about the way they have been treated in a "man's world" and don't know what to do about it (Jakubowski-Spector, 1973). Assertion has been carefully distinguished from aggressive behavior (See Chart 49); assertiveness training leads not to taking advantage of others, but rather to the deliberate and forthright taking of what is legitimately one's own. A commonly-used textbook on assertiveness training is *Your Perfect Right* (Alberti & Emmons, 1974), which can be used in courses designed to provide the basic skills of this technique.

Chart 49

A Comparison of Non-Assertive, Assertive, and Aggressive Behavior

	NON-ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR	ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR	AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR
Characteristics of the behavior:	Emotionally dishonest, indirect, self-denying, inhibited	(Appropriately) emotionally honest, direct, self-enhancing, expressive	(Inappropriately) emotionally honest, direct, self-enhancing at expense of another, expressive
Your feelings when you engage in this behavior:	Hurt, anxious at the time & possibly angry later	Confident, self-respecting at the time & later	Righteous, superior, depreciatory at the time & possibly guilty later
The other person's feelings about herself when you engage in this behavior:	Guilty or superior	Valued, respected	Hurt, humiliated
The other person's feelings about you when you engage in this behavior:	Irritated, pity, disgusted	Generally respect	Angry, vengeful

Source: Robert E. Alberti & Michael L. Emmons, Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior, San Luis Obispo, California: Impact, 1974.

Jakubowski-Spector (1973) describes in detail the rationale and procedures for teaching assertive behavior to women (Jakubowski-Spector also has made herself available to conduct week-end assertiveness training workshops for women). A film, Assertive Training for Women: A Stimulus Film was developed by the Personnel and Guidance Association under the direction of Jakubowski-Spector and associates (1974). Such resources as these may prove invaluable to the counselor interested in developing an assertiveness training program.

For a more academic background on assertiveness training Arnold Lararus, who developed the technique with Joseph Wolpe in the 1950's, has an excellent description of the research relating to the technique, and procedures for identifying persons who might benefit from it, in his book Behavior Therapy and Beyond (1972). Assertiveness training is, of course, appropriate for both men and women.

Counselors are encouraged not to make the assumption that all women would benefit from assertiveness skill training. Many women may be as assertive, or more so, than the typical man. Therefore, careful assessment of need should precede any effort to provide such training in given cases.

Counseling to Change Attitudes

Exposure to new role models, and new experiences for girls and women are powerful tools for the counselor to use in emancipating girls and women for full participation in modern society. However, the socialization process cannot be shed so easily for many girls and women, and may require intensive retraining if any change is to occur. Many attitudes inhibit girls and women from even thinking seriously about career options commensurate with their abilities and interests. Other attitudes depress girls' and women's career aspirations because they create conflict and guilt. A few of the attitudes which inhibit and depress career aspirations in girls and women are suggested below. Suggestions for attitude change through educational curricula or group discussion follow.

- Belief

"Women are intended to be "passive-dependent", unlike the successful career man, who is active, independent, initiating and dominant."

- Fact

Research (Maccoby, 1974) indicates that dominance related to persuasion, task competance and ability to lead others is found equally in men and women. The role of woman and mother is not biologically more passive and dependent than that of man and father, although this is often the reason given for saying women are meant to be passive-dependent.

- Belief

"A college education is wasted on girls."

- Fact

The fact is the more education a girl has the more likely she is to work. Ninety-one percent of women doctorates were found working 8 years after earning their degree. Sixty-eight percent of women with graduate school degrees continue to work, whereas only 28% of women with an elementary school education work, and 50% of women who graduate from high school continue working.

- Belief

"A girl doesn't have to support herself; her husband or family will support her."

- Fact

More than 10 percent of adult women were heads of households in 1974, responsible for supporting themselves and their families. More than 60% of the women who work do so because they are widowed, divorced or married to men who earn less than $3,000 a year. More than ninety percent of all women will work at some time in their lives. (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1974)

- Belief

"Women get their sense of accomplishment vicariously through others--usually their husbands, sons, bosses, etc."

- Fact

Unless unemployed women are unusually satisfied with their homemaking achievements, they find themselves experiencing emptiness and lack of achievement (Friedan, 1963). Women returning to work after raising a family are also found to lack self-confidence (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1971)

Attitudes Which Depress Career Aspirations in Girls and Women

- Belief

"If I succeed in a career, I will be less feminine and men won't like me."

- Fact

Having a career does not necessarily lead to failure in marriage or love. Many women doctorates and professionals, studied by Astin and Bayer (1972), Kaley (1971) and Poloma & Garland (1971) were married and a majority of these found their husbands supportive and encouraging of their career aspirations. Research has found that women were less afraid of career success when they believed that a majority of women were intending to pursue careers in the same field.

- Belief

"Women are discriminated against in employment in relation to entry, salary and promotions."

- Fact

Discrimination has been documented, but recent legislation Title IX; Education Amendments (1972); Equal Employment Opportunity Act (1972); Equal Pay Act (1972) are powerful tools for correcting such discrimination. Court action in the past two years in favor of women's rights is encouraging and substantial.

- Belief

"Universally, women are given primary responsibility for ensuring that their children grow up healthy."

- Fact

International studies do indicate that women are expected to assume primary responsibility for child rearing (Darling, 1973; Kievit, 1972). However, attitudes of husbands are changing, from expectations that wives will do a majority of the child rearing tasks, to a view that childrearing tasks are to be shared (Poloma and Garland, 1971). The trend to smaller families will make child rearing tasks less time consuming than formerly. A woman can choose a husband who views child rearing as a mutual responsibility, if she wishes -- a husband who will share responsibility when the children are sick, need help with their homework or are in trouble with the law.

- Belief

"Universally, women are given primary responsibility for housecleaning, laundry, grocery shopping and cooking."

- Fact

It is true that women, internationally, spend more time on housekeeping tasks than men, about twice as much even when they work (Kievit, 1972; Darling, 1973). However, it is becoming a common sight to see men shopping for groceries and doing the laundry at the laundromat. Other household chores involving cleaning and cooking appear to be shared more by husbands in ages 20-30 (Kievit, 1972) and more highly educated husbands (Poloma and Garland, 1971). Husbands have long been accepted as the barbecue cook and bartender when the family entertains. A woman can choose a husband if she wishes who views household tasks as a mutual responsibility, -- a husband who will share responsibility for cooking, cleaning and entertaining.

- Belief

"Working mothers breed delinquent children."

- Fact

Research (Wallston, 1973) has found no relationship between working mothers and delinquent children, when factors such as neglect and rejection are controlled. Finding consistent, competent substitute care appears to be more important to a child's psychological health than whether or not a mother works.

- Belief

"Girls are not interested in scientific things."

- Fact

Researchers have found that girls perform as well as boys in math and science up to about age 10; thereafter, their performance becomes increasingly poorer. It is suggested that this effect is due, at least in part, to parents and teachers praising boys for scientific interest and not praising girls. Encouraging girls to take available math and science courses is one way to modify girls' attitudes. Also, rewarding girls for achievements in math and science could help.

Similarly, encouraging girls to take shop and technical subjects such as drafting could help change girls' attitudes about their mechanical abilities and spatial relations aptitudes. Coed vocational and technical curriculum should be encouraged also, including home economics and family planning for both boys and girls. Some states (Illinois) require shop and home economics for both girls and boys in elementary school.

In countries such as Russia, 32% of the engineers are women and 20% of the physics and math professors are women. Interest in the biological sciences is demonstrated by a majority of women doctors in Russia.

- Belief

"Girls shouldn't be tomboys."

- Fact

Research indicates that girls who score high on femininity tend to be more anxious and less well adjusted than girls who score in the middle range of femininity-masculinity. Other research found that adult men and women who scored in the middle range on masculinity-femininity were also better adjusted, more emotionally stable and less anxious, than adults scoring high for their sex. This research suggests that parents do not set strict masculine and feminine expectations for their children, but rather allow individual interest to shape activities.

Attitudes such as these do not change easily. Training parents to raise children who are relatively freer of sex role stereotypes would be an important contribution.

A second place to attack the prevailing attitudes is in the schools, e.g., through changing textbook content. In September, 1974, the Texas State Department of Education, which spends $30 million annually on textbooks for its public schools, installed a revised, sexfree curriculum in its schools. For such curriculum changes to work, of course, teachers will need retraining and exposure to the facts that help counter myths such as those discussed above.

Some helpful curriculum materials have been developed to counter myths about women at the high school level:

1. A handbook for high school women, Other Choices for Becoming a Woman (1974), by Joyce Slayton Mitchell, is available from KNOW, Inc., Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania for $5.00. Topics covered include: Sexual Choices; Relationship Choices; Who Chooses?; and Educational Choices.

2. A film entitled Girls at 12 (30 minutes) has been developed by the Education Development Center, Newton, Mass., 02160, (with funding support by NIE). This film is designed to expose high school girls (and adults) to the consequences of some of life's choices. A series of nine additional films will be developed by the Center during the next three years to provide an articulated curriculum for high school students and young women not in school. The focus will be on relations between women's experience now and in other periods and cultures; challenges to existing sex role stereotypes held by men and women; and alternative role and career models. Specific target audiences include high school seniors, women out of high school for ten years, and black 12-year-old girls.

Girls at 12 is a documentary film showing the real lives of a group of 12-year-old girls who are friends as they enter adolescence. They begin to make choices about their own lives in a context in which school-home influences pressure them toward social conformity. Girls at 12 now is available from New Day Films, c/o Joyce Chopra, 11 Holland Street, Cambridge, Mass. 02138.

3. The Committee Advisory Commission on the Status of Women for the State of California has developed a curriculum for high school girls, Information for Counselors on Counseling California Girls. The packet of materials includes a game developed to facilitate attitude change (available from the Committee, 1025 P St., Room 340, Sacramento, California 95814).

The approach to changing sex role stereotypes in the schools could well benefit from suggestions made by educators for infusing career education into the total curriculum (McClure, et al., 1973; Hoyt, 1974).

Female college students and adult women could benefit from courses offered in various "Women's Studies Programs." More than 400 colleges and universities now offer such programs, representing a total of more than 800 course offerings. McBee and Blake's The American Woman: Who Will She Be? (1974) might be a particularly useful text for some of these courses. The foreword by Margaret Mead is followed by a set of readings and questions for further study. The presentations are balanced in their point of view, and cover a wide range of topics of potential interest to women.

Three recent films also might be appropriate for viewing by college and adult women in Women's Studies Programs:

1. The Emerging Woman (1974) presents highlights of the social and political history of women in the U.S.

2. Miss, Ms., Mrs. -- Mystery: The Present and Future Status of Women (1974) is a 15-minute film produced by Learning Information, Inc. The film is accompanied by an audio tape presentation and a discussion guide.

3. Joyce at 34 (1974) is a film autobiography concerning a young married professional woman having her first child at 34, and being torn between the demands of her film-making career and the unexpected desire to take care of the baby herself. It is available from New Day Films, c/o Joyce Chopra, 11 Holland Street, Cambridge, Mass. 02138.

Discussion groups aimed at attitude change can sometimes apply what is known from research on attitude change to their discussion technique. For example, dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) suggests that attitude change is brought about through creating cognitive dissonance. For example, inviting a young girl to pretend, in role playing, that men like clever women, even though she doesn't believe it, helps set up dissonance in her and facilitate attitude change. Festinger demonstrated that dissonance is an uncomfortable state for an individual and that internal forces are set in motion to reduce discomfort by accomodating the new information (attitude) to some degree. Kohlberg and Turiel (1975), in applying Festinger's dissonance theory to moral attitude change, has demonstrated repeatedly that 'small increments' of new information are more likely to be understood and absorbed by individuals than 'large increments.' Planned attitude change experiences should sequence the intensity and amount of information provided to change stereotypic attitudes toward non-stereotypic ways of thinking and behavior.

Three major purposes for counselor training in sex equality in guidance were suggested previously. Following is a discussion, with suggested means (how to's) for identifying and changing counselor bias.

1. Identifying and Changing Sex Role Stereotypes in Counselors

A first step in counselor training is to raise to the awareness level sex stereotypes that the counselor may be only subliminally aware of, if at all.

Some of the procedures suggested by Birk and Tanney (1973); could be used for this purpose. The Birk and Tanney procedure addresses itself primarily to occupational stereotypes, but other stereotypes such as those identified above (beliefs) could also be addressed using Birk's technique. Birk has been applying her techniques, with the help of Schlossberg and Jakubowski in workshops for counselors and psychologists across the country. These experts are available to conduct weekend workshops for counselors.

This chapter has described other methods for facilitating attitude change through discussion, role reversal, introducing new role models, and cognitive dissonance. These methods are equally applicable for training counselors.

At some point in the training, a review of the research evidence on counselor bias should be presented to participants. The information in this Chapter may be sufficient; a more extensive review is available in Schlossberg and Pietrofesa (1973).

It should be noted that attitude change is a slow process. Only very rarely will a weekend workshop produce lasting changes, except for those attitudes held lightly by counselors, and in which they had very little vested interest. Training female counselors who are naturally ripe for sex equality information may produce premature optimism that "exposure" to new ideas is all that is needed to change the attitudes of a lifetime in all counselors, both male and female. This is not true.

Counselor training for sex equality should begin with some form of preassessment technique to identify stereotypic attitudes and a measure of the intensity with which these attitudes are held. Bem (1972) is developing a measure for this use at Stanford University which may prove useful here. However, research is needed to identify the best means of preassessing sex attitudes and their relative strength.

Sex bias in interest measurement and career materials should be covered. Materials helpful to the trainer on these topics may be found in Chapter I of this Sourcebook. Practice in using the NIE Guidelines on sex equality in interest measurement should be provided during training, especially the portions related to orienting the client (Guideline III:D) prior to administering an interest inventory.

Cooperative Planning To Increase Career Opportunities for Girls and Women

Consistent with career development theory (Super, 1957, 1969), exploratory vocational experiences for girls should be encouraged in the elementary and high school years. By exploratory experiences, we mean opportunities for girls to try out a wide variety of career roles "in simulation," through observation and interview, and through volunteer or part-time work. Although counselors may be the stimulus for making sure these types of opportunities are provided to girls, the cooperation of school district staff, teachers, parents and employers in the development of a program for systematic exposure would be desirable. The reader is referred to Holland's Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers for detailed suggestions on setting up such a program. Holland's career development theory has been demonstrated to have wide applicability for women and for minorities. The Holland career development model places the major responsibility for exposure to new career models on the school, home and community. The counselors' task in this model is to provide additional experiences where needed, and to spearhead programmatic changes within the school environment.

Career Counseling For Special Groups of Women

Earlier in this chapter three groups of women--reentry women, black women and widows and divorcees--were described who presented some unique characteristics and needs to the career counselor.

We describe below some suggestions for meeting the unique needs of these three groups. Where these women share career needs with women-in-general, techniques discussed in the previous section are cross-referenced.

The writers recognize that many more subpopulations of women exist with unique problems, for example, other racial groups of Spanish or Oriental heritage; and physically handicapped women. Our literature search did not unearth much in the way of substantive research or techniques for career counseling of Spanish and Oriental women, although some suggestive articles may be found in recent issues of the *American Personnel and Guidance Journal*. Counseling for physically handicapped women is a specifalized technique building on the extensive literature and research in rehabilitation counseling, and is not covered in this *Sourcebook*.

Counseling Reentry Women

Mature women returning to school or work have some special needs which require individual tailoring of career development experiences and techniques by the counselor. These center around the need to rebuild self-confidence and to overcome environmental obstacles (financial, child-care, age, etc.) unique to her. These special needs are discussed below. First, however, a brief discussion of why exploratory experiences for older women are important is presented.

Exploratory experiences for mature women returning to work or school should be individually tailored. Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) have identified the need that many adults have to change career direction in midlife. When such changes are emerging, mature women (and men) experience the need to "recycle" through career development tasks, such as 'exploration' in a truncated but nevertheless real fashion. Frequently, career changers (i.e., women changing from being homemakers to being employed workers) are unaware of the need to work through developmental taks such as exploration. The counselors' role with mature adults and 'reentry' women is to suggest such tasks and help women plan to implement and complete this aspect of their career change plans. Exploration at reentry is critical if mature women are to choose careers commensurate with their interests, talents and abilities.

Reentry Women Regain Self-Confidence

In the past decade, many college and university campuses nave been surprised at the number of older women who enroll in courses providing group experiences in career development. Such courses often offer specific assistance in terms of sharpening resume writing or job getting skills, but in addition they offer psychological support for women wishing to return to school (or work) after having been homemakers. Often multiple sections of these courses have to be initiated because of the high level of demand.

The skills taught in these courses (job getting, self-assessment, resume writing), though valuable, probably would not by themselves generate such a high level of response. The attraction, often communicated by word of mouth, is partly the experience of working together with women having similar concerns and problems -- learning from each other that "they can do it." These courses can be called bridging groups, i.e., providing a means of moving from home to classroom or office, providing the necessary skills and the confidence required to reenter the world of work -- seen by many women as a man's world.

The value of shared experiences of problem-solving by people with similar difficulties is well-known. Parents of retarded children, foreign students, spouses of alcoholics, alcoholics themselves (AA), drug abusers and black students are among those who have banded together for just such a purpose.

Self-confidence has been found to be a critical ingredient to mental health and one's ability to initiate and take action (White, 1973). Counselors can help facilitate the development of such groups for reentry women in communities and settings where they do not now exist.

Reentry Women Overcome Obstacles

Every women or girl confronts some obstacles to her ideal career choice, but the obstacles confronting the older woman have been increased, particularly by the fact that she has typically taken on social and family responsibilities which complicate her life, and make her less mobile. A procedure has been developed by Farmer (1973) for helping women identify and plan to overcome or reduce such obstacles.

For example: a woman in her 50's sought counseling regarding how she could get admitted to a graduate study program in social work. Her age was the major barrier to gaining admission. Her counselor helped her plan, through applying systematic problem-solving procedures, and develop alternative means for overcoming this obstacle. Applying such problem-solving techniques to the career counseling procedure for women has been found to be an effective way to help them overcome certain obstacles, e.g., age discrimination, lack of self-confidence and lack of the customarily defined job skills.

As part of the counselor training procedure in the Farmer career counseling model, case studies are given of adult women and college coeds who are experiencing career development problems. Three of these cases are presented in Appendix H as illustrative material. The reader may wish to add other cases, representing a variety of problems.

Multiple Role Planning for the Reentry Woman

Multiple role planning for the woman returning to school or work after an absence of years presents a series of pragmatic problems requiring efficient use of time and resources, as well as counseling for conflict reduction. Principles of money management and household management can be taught. Harmon (1974) suggests that women returning to work often do so because they are widowed or divorced -- and they need the money. These women are not returning to work for "self-actualization" or self-fulfillment purposes, but in order to eat. For them, planning to manage their roles efficiently, leaving some time left over for relaxation, is very important. If they have children, they very much need accurate knowledge about child care resources, cooperative solutions to child care, and availability of medical and dental services at other than regular business hours.

Alice Skelsey has prepared *The Working Mother's Guide to Her Home, Her Family and Herself* (1970). This is an entertaining and thoughtful book that offers much practical information for the working woman.

The Project on the Education and Status of Women (Wash., D.C.) reported on family planning and health services provided by major colleges and universities in 1972. Their summary report is available at no cost and may be used as a stimulus to better family planning, and as a guide to counselors who might wish to develop such services.

Continuing Education Programs and Opportunities for Women

The intent of continuing education programs is to provide services to women at reentry, such as academic course work, child care, financial aid, arrangements for part-time study in full-time degree programs, flexible scheduling and credit for courses taken at other institutions. Often, the academic courses offered in such programs are part of the regular college or university curriculum and the continuing education program itself provides the additional services that help make it possible for women to return to school. Sometimes, a Continuing Education Program will offer special courses designed for women preparing them for the GED exam to obtain their high school diploma, or providing training in time management and study skills.

The Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor Pamphlet 10 (1971) contains a listing of all programs in continuing education for women active as of 1971. This pamphlet also discusses counselor training programs for continuing education and federal funding for such programs. A supplement (Wells, 1974) is also available.

Reentry Women Obtain Academic Credit for What They Know

Women who wish to return to work after raising a family, but who do not have a high school or college degree, sometimes may obtain credit for what they have learned through experience by taking the General Educational Development (GED) tests for a high school certificate, or the College Level Examination Program Tests (CLEP) developed by the College Entrance Examination Board in 1967, to obtain credit at the college level. The U.S. Women's Bureau has prepared a brochure (Leaflet 56, January, 1974) outlining procedures for taking these exams in various localities across the country (See Appendix G).

Counseling Black Women

Earlier in this chapter, we described some unique characteristics of black women, as compared with white women. In summary, differences were found to be significant between black middle to upper class women and lower class black women. The former were found to be represented in the professions at levels similar to white women, and receiving salaries considerably in excess of white women. Middle class black women are not as threatening to white men in the professions and find access to high level positions somewhat easier than white women. Middle class black women do not have the usual stereotypic attitudes toward jobs as typically male and female and were found to be less inhibited in choosing non-traditional professional roles than white women. Black middle class women have access to fellowship aid not always available to white women. The position of middle class black women, then is very different from that of white middle class women.

Career counseling for middle class black women which emphasizes reducing sex-role stereotyping should be less appropriate than for their white sisters. Similarly, home-career conflict counseling would be inappropriate for most black middle class women since they have been found to have husbands more accepting of their work roles and found to have less concern about leaving their children to work when the children are young. Other career developmental tasks for black women are similar to those for all women (i.e. exploratory experiences, decision-making skills, job related skills etc.) and should be provided.

Several studies reviewed by Astin, (1973), Epstein, (1973), and Gump and Rivers (1974) have found that middle-class black women tend to choose traditional feminine professional occupations, similar to the pattern found for white women, although more (proportionately) are found in occupations at the lower end of the spectrum. This finding suggests that counselors should encourage all women Black, White or otherwise, to enter non-traditional occupations when their aptitudes and interests are suitable.

Black girls and women at the lower socio-economic levels have multiple special needs related to the culture of poverty, skill deficits, and motivational erosion. Early introduction of special skill training programs (in pre-school, kindergarten if possible...) are critical for these black girls, as they are for all so called "disadvantaged" groups, and related more to their disadvantaged status than to their sex. The reader is referred to programs developed for counseling the disadvantaged such as the Work Incentive Programs (WIN; Mason, 1973).

The use of interest inventories with black women, middle or lower class is not recommended. A review of supportive findings follows.

Interest Inventories and Black Women

Gump and Rivers (1974) report on the use of interest tests with black women. Her review indicates that no effort has yet been made to provide special norms for blacks on most of the available interest inventories currently (SCII; KOIS: SDS; OVIS). The one exception, the American College Testing Handbook (ACT) (1972) does include norms for Afro-Americans. Examination of these norms indicate that blacks (men and women) tend to score higher, on the average, than the men-in-general and women-in-general norm groups. The ACT Handbook cautions users that black norms are not representative since these students have not always had the same experiences and opportunities as other students. Deutsch (1964) and Anastasi (1968) caution against the use of conventional interest inventories with minority groups, until research demonstrates their meaning for these groups. Not only are norms for minorities largely lacking, but the instruments themselves were not developed with representative minorities, so that validity and reliability of scales or items for these groups cannot be determined.

Gump and Rivers (1974) have prepared seven guidelines for test developers, publishers and counselors relating to the use of interest measures with black women and minority groups:

> 1. Efforts directed at amelioration of sex bias should be extended as strenuously toward members of minority groups as toward whites.
>
> 2. Given the tendency of black women to make early career decisions within a limited array of occupations, to the extent that interest inventories may be used as sources of stimulation their early administration is thought to be particularly important for the minority student.
>
> 3. Student handbooks should include accurate information about the proportions of minority men and women in various occupational roles, so that occupational planning may include realistic knowledge of group participation.
>
> 4. Counselor manuals should also include discussion of group participation in various occupations, and counselors should be urged to encourage the minority student's broad consideration of occupational choice, even where present numbers of minorities in given roles is low. Low participation has too often been used as a source of discouragement. Where the student's interests and abilities are realistically matched, counselors should be advised to admit their ignorance of "how it would be" for the minority student entering unchartered waters, rather than to "protect" him from contemplated difficulties.
>
> 5. Publishers should establish response rates on homogeneous scales for minority men and women. Should substantial differences in response be found, separate norms should be presented for different minority groups. Should differences not be found, publishers should indicate clearly that differences were evaluated, and that groups have been combined due to similarity of response.
>
> 6. Normative groups for occupational scales should be examined to determine if minority groups are included, and where minorities are included their response patterms should be compared with the majority, and item modifications made where necessary.
>
> 7. Minority group psychologists should seek federal, state and private support for the purpose of developing new instruments which are appropriate for use with minority group women. (pp. 34-36)

In the interim, prior to the development of valid interest measures and norms for black girls and women, counselors may use discussion groups which facilitate self-inventorying of interests (See Hahn, 1967).

Counseling Widows and Divorcees

Widows and divorcees were described briefly as having special counseling needs related to providing immediate financial support for themselves and their families (if any); learning to be independent after a period of living with a husband; and finding resources for meeting their needs for affection and companionship from the opposite sex.

Harmon (1975) has suggested procedures for meeting the security needs of women. Primarily, they involve helping women find a job, without sidetracking them into exploratory self-awareness exercises. Practice on this point could be incorporated into other training sessions.

Practice in learning to be independent can best be provided by giving practice in the skills needed to feel a sense of one's own competence (White, 1973). Widows and divorcees may benefit from practice in identifying areas of dependency (i.e., business decisions) and in devising plans for overcomingly these specific dependencies.

When the psychological need is for affection widows and divorcees, counselors could practice through role playing procedures for approaching the opposite sex, and reducing loneliness. Some efforts have been made toward developing techniques to reduce loneliness for (Block, 1969; Mindy (1970). In addition to social approach skills, older woman may need guidance and support in regaining confidence in their personal attractiveness.

Divorced women need special counseling on their legal rights. The Equal Rights Amendment, reviewed in Chapter V of this Sourcebook, when passed, will affect the alimony and child care provisions given divorced women. Divorced women also need help in preparing to assume equal economic responsibility for their children. In many instances, divorcees do not have all the academic or vocational training desirable for their particular personal aptitudes and interests. Helping these women optimize their training before the economic crunch cuts short further training is a challenge counselors should be ready to engage.

Counselor Training: General Strategies

That special counselor training is needed for those who will be working with women and girls has been discussed previously. Sex role stereotypes and possible counselor bias can be highlighted, and hopefully dealth with. Also, counselors need information and insight into the career opportunities open to women and some practice in using appropriate techniques for enhancing career exploration and development in women. Third, counselors need help in planning and institutional changes in their work settings that will increase sex equality in counseling.

It might be argued that the best place to provide counselor training on sex equality topics would be in the college and university training programs, while secondary efforts could be made to train practicing counselors. The emphasis here is on the reverse strategy: We suggest that primary emphasis be given to in-service counselor training.

Our reasoning for this emphasis is as follows: counselors in training programs usually disperse geographically when they take professional positions after getting their degrees. They then move into organizations where most of the practitioners and decision-makers have *not* had the training experiences recommended here. Thus, if the counselor wishes to implement the new things learned in training, he is in the position of trying to introduce change into an organization as a relative newcomer (and thus something of an outsider). This is rarely an easy task.

On the other hand, introducing the innovations described here can be somewhat easier for the established counselor, particularly if certain principles for facilitating change are followed (e.g., Glaser & Taylor, 1973; Havelock, 1973).

Four resources for counselor training are described in Chapter VI of this Sourcebook.

It should be stressed that both *male* and *female* counselors require training; efforts to improve sex equality in guidance will be seriously handicapped if only female counselors are involved.

Practice in Planning for Change

Counselors who wish to introduce programmatic change into their institution may benefit from suggestions and training on "how to" plan for change. *Sounds of Change*, a recent publication of University Extension, University of California at Los Angeles (1974) is a report on training in counseling and programming for women's career opportunities. Portions of this report directly address program design, administration and planning.

Procedures are suggested for assessment of the needs of women in each institution/community; interpretation of trends, social, economic, political and educational; establishment of goals within the context of the realities of each institution; guidelines for determining content; alternative program formats in relation to available time and commitment of women addressed; development of staff to meet program needs; and methods of program evaluation.

In addition to the procedures suggested in Sounds of Change, counselors should be trained in procedures for gaining the support of decision-makers in their institution. They will require funding, time and support from a broad range of personnel in the institution and to obtain these they must first obtain the support of key administrative staff. The California Personnel and Guidance Association's publication on introducing career education into the schools and campuses of California (Monograph No. 5) has some helpful guidelines for involving decision makers in change.

The cooperation of school district staff, teachers, parents and community employers in the development of a program for systematic exposure of girls to new career model would be desirable. Consistent with career development theory and research (Super, 1957, 1969), exploratory vocational experiences for girls should be encouraged in the elementary and high school years. By exploratory experiences, we mean opportunities for girls to try out a wide variety of career roles "in simulation," through observation and interview, and through volunteer or part-time work. Although counselors may be the stimulus for making sure these types of opportunities are provided to girls the support of teacher and community is vital.

The reader is referred to Holland's *Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers* for detailed suggestions in setting up such a program. Holland's career development theory has been demonstrated to have wide applicability for women and for minorities. The Holland career development model places the major responsibility for exposure to new career models on the school, home and community. The counselors' task in this model is to provide additional experiences where needed, and to spearhead programmatic changes within the school environment.

The counselor attempting to introduce programmatic change into the community and educational institutions might benefit from training in procedures for handling *controversy*. Loring and Wells (1972) book has some useful suggestions for training and practice in this area.

Training Counselors to Evaluate Their Procedures and Programs

Why Evaluate?

If it's worth doing, it's worth knowing if you have succeeded. Often new programs and procedures don't work well the first time they are tried. They can be improved and made to work over time, as intended, through careful use of evaluation procedures which allow the counselor to identify which aspects of her procedures are working as intended and which ones are not. The ones that are not working efficiently can be revised or discarded, until the procedure/program is working to achieve sex equality goals in counseling.

In many peoples' minds, the term "evaluation" has come to represent a monster which appears at grade time, at the end of an experimental project, or at the yearly rehiring period. Its nature is JUDGMENT, in heavy black capitals, and its outcome, all too often, is punishment in some form. A project has either succeeded so well it is judged to be no longer needed, or it has has failed to meet expectations and is abandoned. Likewise, as a result of "evaluation", the untenured counselor may find herself out of work or transferred across the city because of "financial problems."

This threatening image of evaluation can be eradicated (or at least modified) by viewing evaluation as a corrective tool, with the purpose of helping counselors revise and adapt their counseling procedures to meet the needs of individual clients. It does not pass final judgment on short-term experiments, it makes sure they achieve their objectives and continue to change over the years to meet changing client needs. It does not rank counselors, it helps them obtain institutional and community support and approval for a job well done.

The Process

There is some general agreement about the procedures needed for internal evaluation, sometimes referred to as formative evaluation (Cronbach, 1963; Scriven, 1967). This type of evaluation should be distinguished from that carried out by external evaluators at the end of a program. The latter is not suited to counselor evaluation in this context, whereas the formative evaluation is.

Formative evaluation may be conveniently divided into five steps or stages as follows:

1. Set counseling goals for group procedures, program changes or individual counseling you conduct. When necessary, obtain agreement on goals from important others in your institution.

2. Translate your goals into measurable objectives with related measurement procedures and acceptable levels of achievement. Assign persons to collect information on progress toward goals at useful time intervals.

3. Display progress information and comparisons to yourself, and other interested persons at frequent intervals and make comparisons with your stated desirable level of accomplishment.

4. Make some judgments about the comparisons you obtained in step three. Involve others in these judgments as needed.

5. Plan needed revisions and changes.

Detailed procedures for training counselors in focusing their counseling goals and devising means for collecting progress information have been developed by the California Personnel and Guidance Association (Monograph No. 5). Evaluation forms and procedures are also included in the Guided Inquiry career counseling procedures developed by Farmer (1973).

Briefly, by way of example, let us consider the counseling goal of increasing the career options open to girls and women. How would you evaluate yourself on this goal? You might further specify the goal as increasing the number of women choosing nontraditional career options and then compare the number at the end of the year with some previous year's record. Still, this would be a tenuous approach because you would not know if it was your counseling or a changed environment that had produced the change. You might add to your own record that of another counselor, working with a comparable group of women. You would have more substantial evidence of the benefit of your program if you measured your success in at least these two ways: i) comparison with previous years; and ii) comparison with a comparable counseling population given a different counselor.

Supposing you wished to help women plan for the dual role. As a counselor in a high school, you might set as your goal working with a majority of the high school girls in your school and at least some boys. You could further specify your goal as helping a majority of high school girls develop a feasible plan for their dual role before graduating from high school; and helping an increasing number of boys consider planning for a dual role as part of their career plan. You would, of course, have to define further "feasible" in operational terms. You might find it very exciting to follow up your high school graduates to determine which plans were "feasible" and which ones were not. In this way, over time, you would develop a predictive measure of feasibility.

Counselors might consider enlisting the help of students in their evaluation efforts. For example, questionnaires could be developed which students administer, score and help analyze for evaluation efforts using a before and after design, and or a comparison group design Popham, (1972) has prepared An Evaluation Guidebook, a useful volume for counselors planning to evaluate their work.

These are brief examples of a beginning toward specifying an evaluation plan for counseling sex equality in guidance. Collecting evidence of your success, or lack of it, will give you a powerful argument for implementing change in your institution and/or community.

V. THE LAW: RECENT LEGISLATION AND ITS IMPACT

What's In This Section

A brief summary of laws pertaining to equal opportunity for women in education and employment, and their equal rights as citizens will be presented here, along with a discussion of ways in which counselors might use such information.

In the section presenting laws regarding equal opportunity in education for women, we will also cover equal employment opportunity in educational institutions, since the provisions of these laws overlap. A summary of court actions resulting from these laws will also be presented. In addition, the provisions for special funding opportunities under the Women's Educational Equity Act (1974) will be presented.

A second section here will discuss the Equal Employment Opportunity and Equal Pay Amendments as well as the provisions of Executive Order 11375 relating to government contractors. Further details about these laws are presented in Appendices K and L. A summary of progress in the courts, in State legislatures, and in the organizational response to these legislative requirements will be presented.

Finally, the current status of the Equal Rights Amendment will be outlined. Answers to a series of questions related to the Equal Rights Amendment are presented in Appendix O.

The chapter closes with a description of present trends relating to equal opportunity for women under the law in employment and education.

Counselors Use the Equal Opportunity Laws

Counselors in school settings, who are interested primarily in counseling for the career development of individuals and groups, may use the equal opportunity laws somewhat differently from counselors who are assigned the role of finding equal employment opportunities for girls and women. Counselors in the first category should be generally familiar with the laws, and specifically well versed in the terms and conditions of Title IX of the Education Amendments (1972), and of Title VII and VIII of the Public Health Service Act (as amended, 1971). These laws relate to educational opportunities in both traditional and nontraditional fields of study for women, as well as access to fellowship and scholarship aid. Counselors concerned with employment opportunities for girls and women should be familiar with Title VII of the Civil Rights Act; the Equal Pay Act, Executive Order 11246 (amended by 11375); and as state and local laws where applicable. They should, in addition, be able to apply the terms and conditions of these laws.

Depending on the counselor's setting, clients may be given direct assistance in becoming more aware of their rights, and help in reporting infringements. For the high school counselor, it would be particularly appropriate to have a class session on recent legislation affecting the opportunities and rights of women, followed by a discussion of recent gains and ways in which women can seek redress when their rights are infringed. High school girls are sometimes excluded from taking vocational technical courses, or from admission to public technical high schools. This exclusion is no longer legal, and counselors may become advocates for girls so excluded.

College and university counselors could appropriately conduct group civil rights awareness sessions for campus women. Infringements of students' legal rights will frequently come to the attention of college-university counselors. They can help such clients report these infringements to the appropriate authorities (See address listings in Chapter VI and the chart later in this chapter). Violations of women's rights regarding admission to publicly supported higer education programs can be reported by counselors, and appropriate action taken. Violations of these rights could also be reported by clients themselves. Simply providing the proper address or telephone number could make the difference between an infringement being reported or going unheard. Many campus women also work part-time and should benefit from the provisions of the Equal Pay Act and Equal Employment Opportunity regulations.

Counselors working in employment offices have an even greater responsibility to assume the role of advocate for women in cases of violation of the Equal Pay Act and/or Equal Employment Opportunity regulations. The role of advocate for counselors is controversial. However, when the terms of the law are clear, the counselor should have no qualms about defending the rights of clients. Minority women can file under the terms of these laws on race and/or sex discriminations.

One contribution a counselor can make, when invited to participate in a search for new employees for an employer, is to ensure that adequate "search" strategies are used to provide equal opportunity for qualified female candidates. Use of the Manual for Determining and Labor Market Availability of Women and Minorities (HEW, 1974), reviewed later in this chapter, is recommended for this purpose.

Counselors should be aware that legislative sanction for equal opportunity for women in employment and education depends, in addition to the actual laws passed, on precedents set by court cases testing the law. Fitzgerald & Fisher (1974) point out the importance of precedent: If a similar or an analogous situation can be found in court records, and the ruling was in favor of the complainant, then a strong precedent has been established for further complaints.

For this reason, the evidence summarized on court decisions to date, relating to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, Executive Order 11246, and Title IX of the Education Amendments should all be viewed as positive. A single court decision in favor of a complainant may indirectly influence institutions and employers to meet the requirements of the law in order to avoid future costly court proceedings.

Legislation Relating to Sex Discrimination in Education

The laws relating to sex discrimination in education and the provisions for their enforcement have been ably summarized by the Project on the Status and Education of Women (1973). This summary is presented in Chart 50.

Court Cases: Equal Opportunity in Education

The Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) reported that there were more than 500 cases filed against educational institutions by the end of 1974.* The complaints related to areas such as athletics, dormitory rules, disparate residency requirements for in-state tuition, membership in organizations and admissions. Action was taken to resolve the residency requirement complaints against George Mason University and the University of Georgia System in favor of the complainants. Complaints against Louisiana State University and the University of Missouri at Columbia involving differential dormitory rules were also resolved in favor of the complainants. Complaints are currently being investigated concerning admissions discrimination against Harvard Law School and California State University at Northridge. Under Title IX of the Education Amendment, 1200 cases were pending as of January, 1975.

---

*Personal communication from the Director of the Project on the Status and Education of Women, February, 1975.

Chart 50

Federal Laws[1] and Regulations Concerning Sex Discrimination in Educational Institutions[2]

October, 1972

Compiled by Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges

	Executive Order 11246 as amended by 11375	**Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964** as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972	**Equal Pay Act of 1963** as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972 (Higher Education Act)	**Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972** (Higher Education Act)[12]	**Title VII (Section 799A) & Title VIII (Section 845) of the Public Health Service Act** as amended by the Comprehensive Health Manpower Act & the Nurse Training Amendments Act of 1971[18]
Effective date	Oct. 13, 1968	March 24, 1972 (July 1965 for nonprofessional workers.) (Institutions with 15-24[7] employees are not covered until March 24, 1973.)	July 1, 1972 (June, 1964, for non-professional workers.)	July 1, 1972 (Admissions provisions effective July 1, 1973.)	Nov. 18,1971
Which institutions are covered	All institutions with federal contracts of over $10.000.[6]	All institutions with 15 or more employees.	All institutions.	All institutions receiving federal monies by way of a grant, loan, or contract (other than a contract of insurance or guaranty).	All institutions receiving or benefiting from a grant, loan guarantee, or interest subsidy to health personnel training programs or receiving a contract under Title VII or VIII of the Public Health Service Act.[19]
What is prohibited[3]	Discrimination in employment (including hiring, upgrading, salaries, fringe benefits, training, and other conditions of employment) on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin or sex. Covers all employees.	Discrimination in employment (including hiring, upgrading, salaries, fringe benefits, training and other conditions of employment) on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin or sex. Covers all employees.	Discrimination in salaries (including almost all fringe benefits) on the basis of sex. Covers all employees.	Discrimination against students or others[14] on the basis of sex.[13]	Discrimination in admission of students on the basis of sex and against some employees.[20]
Exemptions from coverage	None.	Religious institutions are exempt with respect to the employment of individuals of a particular religion or religious order (including those limited to one sex) to perform work for that institution. (Such institutions are not exempt from the prohibition of discrimination based on sex, color and national origin.)	None.	Religious institutions are exempt if the application of the anti-discrimination provisions are not consistent with the religious tenets of such organizations. Military schools are exempt if their primary purpose is to train individuals for the military services of the U.S. or the merchant marine. Discrimination in admissions[16] is prohibited only in vocational institutions (including vocational high schools), graduate and professional institutions, and public undergraduate coeducational institutions.	None.
Who enforces the provisions?	Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC) of the Department of Labor has policy responsibility and oversees federal agency enforcement programs. OFCC has designated HEW as the Compliance Agency responsible for enforcing the Executive Order for all contracts with educational institutions. HEW's Office for Civil Rights (Division of Higher Education) conducts the reviews and investigations.	Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC).[8]	Wage and Hour Division of the Employment Standards Administration of the Department of Labor.	Federal departments and agencies which are empowered to extend financial aid to educational programs and activities. HEW's Office for Civil Rights (Division of Higher Education) is expected to have primary enforcement powers to conduct the reviews and investigations.[17]	HEW's Office for Civil Rights (Division of Higher Education) conducts the reviews and investigations.
How is a complaint made?	By letter to OFCC or Secretary of HEW.	By a sworn complaint form, obtainable from EEOC.	By letter, telephone call, or in person to the nearest Wage and Hour Division office.	Procedure not yet specified. A letter to Secretary of HEW is acceptable.	Procedure not yet specified. A letter to Secretary of HEW is acceptable.
Can complaints of a pattern of discrimination be made as well as individual complaints?	Yes. However, individual complaints are referred to EEOC.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
Who can make a complaint?[4]	Individuals and/or organizations on own behalf or on behalf of aggrieved employee(s) or applicant(s).	Individuals and/or organizations on own behalf or on behalf of aggrieved employee(s) or applicant(s). Members of the commission may also file charges.	Individuals and/or organizations on own behalf or on behalf of aggrieved employee(s).	Individuals and/or organizations on own behalf or on behalf of aggrieved party.	Individuals and/or organizations on own behalf or on behalf of aggrieved party.
Time limit for filing complaints[5]	180 days.	180 days.	No official limit, but recovery of back wages is limited by statute of limitations to two years for a non-willful violation and three years for a willful violation.	Procedure not yet determined.	Procedure not yet determined.
Can investigations be made without complaints?	Yes. Government can conduct periodic reviews without a reported violation, as well as in response to complaints. Pre-award reviews are mandatory for contracts over $1,000,000.	No. Government can conduct investigations only if charges have been filed.	Yes. Government can conduct periodic reviews without a reported violation as well as in response to complaints.	Yes. Government can conduct periodic reviews without a reported violation, as well as in response to complaints.	Yes. Government can conduct periodic reviews without a reported violation, as well as in response to complaints.

Chart 50 (Continued)

Can the entire institution be reviewed?	Yes. HEW may investigate part or all of an institution.	Yes. EEOC may investigate part or all of an establishment.	Yes. Usually the Wage-Hour Division reviews the entire establishment.	Yes. HEW may investigate those parts of an institution which receive federal assistance (as well as other parts of the institution related to the program, whether or not they receive direct federal assistance). If the institution receives general institutional aid, the entire institution may be reviewed.	Yes. HEW may investigate those parts of an institution which receive federal assistance under Title VII and VIII (as well as other parts of the institution related to the program, whether or not they receive assistance under these titles).
Record keeping requirements and government access to records	Institution must keep and preserve specified records relevant to the determination of whether violations have occurred. Government is empowered to review all relevant records.	Institution must keep and preserve specified records relevant to the determination of whether violations have occurred. Government is empowered to review all relevant records.	Institution must keep and preserve specified records relevant to the determination of whether violations have occurred. Government is empowered to review all relevant records.	Institution must keep and preserve specified records relevant to the determination of whether violations have occurred. Government is empowered to review all relevant records.	Institution must keep and preserve specified records relevant to the determination of whether violations have occurred. Government is empowered to review all relevant records.
Enforcement power and sanctions	Government may delay new contracts, revoke current contracts, and debar institutions from eligibility for future contracts.	If attempts at conciliation fail, EEOC or the U.S. Attorney General may file suit.[12] Aggrieved individuals may also initiate suits. Court may enjoin respondent from engaging in unlawful behavior, order appropriate affirmative action, order reinstatement of employees, and award back pay.	If voluntary compliance fails,[11] Secretary of Labor may file suit. Aggrieved individuals may initiate suits when Department of Labor has not done so. Court may enjoin respondent from engaging in unlawful behavior, and order salary raises, back pay and assess interest.	Government may delay new awards, revoke current awards, and debar institution from eligibility for future awards. Department of Justice may also bring suit at HEW's request.	Government may delay new awards, revoke current awards, and debar institution from eligibility for future awards. Department of Justice may also bring suit at HEW's request.
Can back pay be awarded?[9]	Yes. HEW will seek back pay only for employees who were not previously protected by other laws allowing back pay.	Yes. For up to two years prior to filing charges with EEOC.	Yes. For up to two years for a nonwillful violation and three years for a willful violation.	Probably, to the extent that employees are covered.	Probably, to the extent that employees are covered.
Affirmative action requirements *(There are no restrictions against action which is non-preferential)*	Affirmative action plans (including numerical goals and timetables) are required of all contractors with contracts of $50,000 or more and 50 or more employees.[8]	Affirmative action is not required unless charges have been filed, in which case it may be included in conciliation agreement or be ordered by the court.	Affirmative action, other than salary increases and back pay, is not required.	Affirmative action may be required after discrimination is found.	Affirmative action may be required after discrimination is found.
Coverage of labor organizations	Any agreement the contractor may have with a labor organization can not be in conflict with the contractor's affirmative action commitment.	Labor organizations are subject to the same requirements and sanctions as employers.	Labor organizations are prohibited from causing or attempting to cause an employer to discriminate on the basis of sex. Complaints may be made and suits brought against these organizations.	Procedure not yet clear. Any agreement the institution may have with a labor organization can not be in conflict with the nondiscrimination provisions of the legislation.	Procedure not yet clear. Any agreement the institution may have with a labor organization can not be in conflict with the nondiscrimination provisions of the legislation.
Is harassment prohibited?	Institutions are prohibited from discharging or discriminating against any employee or applicant for employment because he/she has made a complaint, assisted with an investigation or instituted proceedings.	Institutions are prohibited from discharging or discriminating against any employee or applicant for employment because he/she has made a complaint, assisted with an investigation or instituted proceedings.	Institutions are prohibited from discharging or discriminating against any employee because he/she has made a complaint, assisted with an investigation or instituted proceedings.	Institutions will be prohibited from discharging or discriminating against any participant or potential participant because he/she has made a complaint, assisted with an investigation or instituted proceedings.	Institutions will be prohibited from discharging or discriminating against any participant or potential participant because he/she has made a complaint, assisted with an investigation or instituted proceedings.
Notification of complaints	Notification of complaints has been erratic in the past. HEW is proposing notifying institutions of complaints within 10 days. HEW notifies institutions a few weeks prior to investigation.	EEOC notifies institutions of complaints within 10 days.	Complaint procedure is very informal. Employer under review may or may not know that a violation has been reported.	Procedure not yet determined.	Procedure not yet determined.
Confidentiality of names	Individual complainant's name is usually given to the institution. Investigation findings are kept confidential by government, but can be revealed by the institution. Policy concerning government disclosure concerning investigations and complaints has not yet been issued. The aggrieved party and respondent are not bound by the confidentiality requirement.	Individual complainant's name is divulged when an investigation is made. Charges are not made public by EEOC, nor can any of its efforts during the conciliation process be made public by the commission or its employees. If court action becomes necessary, the identity of the parties involved becomes a matter of public record. The aggrieved party and respondent are not bound by the confidentiality requirement.	The identity of a complainant, as well as the employer (and union, if involved), is kept in strict confidence.[12] If court action becomes necessary, the identity of the parties involved becomes a matter of public record. The aggrieved party and respondent are not bound by the confidentiality requirement.	Identity of complainant is kept confidential if possible. If court action becomes necessary, the identity of the parties involved becomes a matter of public record. The aggrieved party and respondent are not bound by the confidentiality requirement.	Identity of complainant is kept confidential if possible. If court action becomes necessary, the identity of the parties involved becomes a matter of public record. The aggrieved party and respondent are not bound by the confidentiality requirement.
For further information, contact	Division of Higher Education Office for Civil Rights Department of HEW Washington, D.C. 20201 or Office of Federal Contract Compliance Employment Standards Administration Department of Labor Washington, D.C. 20210 or Regional HEW or DOL Office	Equal Employment Opportunity Commission 1800 G Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20506 or Regional EEOC Office	Wage and Hour Division Employment Standards Administration Department of Labor Washington, D.C. 20210 or Field, Area, or Regional Wage and Hour Office	Division of Higher Education Office for Civil Rights Department of HEW Washington, D.C. 20201 or Regional HEW Office	Division of Higher Education Office for Civil Rights Department of HEW Washington, D.C. 20201 or Regional HEW Office

Footnotes

General

1. State employment and/or human relations laws may also apply to educational institutions. The Equal Rights Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, passed by the Congress and now in the process of ratification would, when ratified, forbid discrimination in publicly supported schools at all levels, including students and faculty.

2. Unless otherwise specified, "institution" includes public and private colleges and universities, elementary and secondary schools, and preschools.

3. A bona fide seniority or merit system is permitted under all legislation, provided the system is not discriminatory on the basis of sex or any other prohibited ground.

4. There are no restrictions against making a complaint under more than one anti-discrimination law at the same time.

5. This time limit refers to the time between an alleged discriminatory act and when a complaint is made. In general, however, the time limit is interpreted liberally when a continuing practice of discrimination is being challenged, rather than a single, isolated discriminatory act.

6. Back pay cannot be awarded prior to the effective date of the legislation.

Executive Order 11246 as amended by 11375

7. The definition of "contract" is very broad and is interpreted to cover all government contracts (even if nominally entitled "grants") which involve a benefit to the federal government.

8. As of January 19, 1973, all covered educational institutions, both public and private, must have *written* affirmative action plans.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act

9. In certain states that have fair employment laws with prohibitions similar to those of Title VII, EEOC automatically defers investigation of charges to the state agency for 60 days. (At the end of this period, EEOC will handle the charges unless the state is actively pursuing the case. About 85 per cent of deferred cases return to EEOC for processing after deferral.)

10. Due to an ambiguity in the law as it relates to public institutions, it is not yet clear whether EEOC *or* the Attorney General will file suit in all situations which involve public institutions.

Equal Pay Act of 1963 as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972 (Higher Education Act)

11. Over 95 per cent of all Equal Pay Act investigations are resolved through voluntary compliance.

12. Unless court action is necessary, the name of the parties need not be revealed. The identity of a complainant or a person furnishing information is never revealed without that person's knowledge and consent.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Higher Education Act)

(Minority women are also protected from discrimination on the basis of their race or color by Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.)

13. Final regulations and guidelines for Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 have not yet been published. This chart includes information which is explicitly stated in the law, as well as how the law is likely to be interpreted in light of other precedents and developments.

14. The sex discrimination provision of Title IX is patterned after Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which forbids discrimination on the basis of race, color and national origin in all federally assisted programs. By specific exemption, the prohibitions of Title VI do not cover employment practices (except where the primary objective of the federal aid is to provide employment). However, there is no similar exemption for employment in Title IX.

15. Title IX states that: "No person . . . shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. . . ."

16. The following are exempted from the *admissions* provision:

Private undergraduate institutions.

Elementary and secondary schools other than vocational schools.

Single-sex public undergraduate institutions. (If public single-sex undergraduate institutions decide to admit both sexes, they will have 7 years to admit female and male students on a nondiscriminatory basis, provided their plans are approved by the Commissioner of Education.)

Note 1. *These exemptions apply to admissions only.* Such institutions are still subject to all other anti-discrimination provisions of the Act.

Note 2. Single-sex professional, graduate and vocational schools at all levels have until July, 1979, to achieve nondiscriminatory admissions, provided their plans are approved by the Commissioner of Education.

17. Under Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which Title IX of the Education Amendments closely parallels, federal agencies which extend aid to educational institutions have delegated their enforcement powers to HEW. A similar delegation of enforcement power is expected under Title IX.

Title VII & Title VIII of the Public Health Service Act as amended by the Comprehensive Health Manpower Act & the Nurse Training Amendments Act of 1971

18. Final regulations and guidelines for Title VII and VIII of the Public Health Service Act have not yet been published. This chart includes information which is explicitly stated in the law, as well as how the law is likely to be interpreted in light of other precedents and developments.

19. Schools of medicine, osteopathy, dentistry, veterinary medicine, optometry, pharmacy, podiatry, public health, allied public health personnel and nursing are specifically mentioned in Titles VII and VIII. Regulations issued June 1, 1972, by the Secretary of HEW specify that *all* entities applying for awards under Titles VII or VIII are subject to the nondiscrimination requirements of the act.

20. HEW regulations state: "Nondiscrimination in admission to a training program includes nondiscrimination in all practices relating to applicants to and students in the program; nondiscrimination in the enjoyment of every right, privilege and opportunity secured by admission to the program; and nondiscrimination in all employment practices relating to employees working directly with applicants to or students in the program."

Source: Association of American Colleges

This document may be reproduced without permission, provided that credit is given to the "Project on the Status & Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009."

In November, 1973, the University of New Mexico was ordered by the court to hand over confidential personnel files to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) in connection with their investigation of a faculty member's national origin bias claim.

In May, 1973, Dr. Sharon Johnson, an assistant professor of biochemistry at the University of Pittsburgh, was granted a preliminary injunction forbidding the University from terminating her employment pending final determination of her complaint under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (amended by the 1972 Equal Employment Opportunity Act), charging bias in refusing tenure. Dr. Johnson's is the first case to be filed under Title VII for an academic institution. If EEOC's findings are not accepted by the University, EEOC can institute further court proceedings. EEOC's findings are summarized below.

a. The number of women on the faculty has been decreasing over the past two years, despite an affirmative action plan, and while complaints of sex discrimination were pending.

b. The average salary of male tenured professors in the School of Medicine was $37,500, while only $27,000 for women with tenure.

c. There are four times as many women eligible for tenure on the faculty as there are men. In the last six years, 70 men received tenure compared to three women in the School of Medicine.

d. The University failed "to implement or set any date for an affirmative action plan to eliminate such discrimination; "...the defendants in their affirmative action program have taken no substantial steps to eliminate discrimination against women in the School of Medicine and the Department of Biochemistry."

e. All male professors in the plaintiff's department, regardless of rank or tenure, were uniformly given raises of $1,500 per year, while Dr. Johnson, the only woman in the department during 1967-72, was given raises averaging $1,000 per year.

f. After the decision to terminate was made, opinions derogatory to the plaintiff's teaching ability were sought and received to justify the decision.

g. A male of comparable qualifications was granted tenure through disparate treatment based on sex.

h. The procedures used to terminate Dr. Johnson were never used prior to her termination.

The court also noted that Dr. Johnson had attained membership in the American Society of Biological Chemists; attained professional status; published independent research of high qualify; was active in other professional contributions; and fulfilled her teaching requirements in a fashion that was not criticized prior to 1971.

Public Health Service Act: Titles VII and VIII

In the past, women have been discriminated against for admissions to medical school, and to schools of dentistry, veterinary medicine, pharmacy and optometry. The Public Health Service Act was amended in 1971 to make it illegal to discriminate in admissions against women in those health training programs receiving federal assistance (minority discrimination already had been prohibited by the 1964 Civil Rights Act). If discrimination is reported, and the charge found to be true, the government may withhold new awards and revoke current awards. Complaints should be made in writing to the HEW Office for Civil Rights in the Region where the infringement occurred. In addition to making it illegal to discriminate against women in admissions to these health-related programs, the Public Health Service Act also makes it illegal to discriminate in awarding fellowships. Quota systems are no longer acceptable for admissions. The practice of taking 5% of the male applicants and 5% of the female applicants, often resulting in token admission of women, is no longer legal. If 500 students apply to a particular medical training program the most qualified candidates must be admitted without regard to sex. This law already has resulted in some dramatic changes, e.g., the 1973 freshman medical class at Harvard was 30% women, as compared with 10% in 1971.

Women's Educational Equity Act

The Women's Educational Equity Act (Public Law 93-380) was passed by the Congress in 1974, establishing a Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs within the U.S. Office of Education. The Council is to consist of 20 members appointed by the President with advice and consent of the Senate to serve 3-year staggered terms. For purposes of this Act, $300 million in funding has been authorized for each fiscal year until July 1, 1978. However, no monies have yet been authorized for 1975 (as of February 15, 1975).

The purpose of the Act is to provide educational equity for women in the United States.

Section 408 of Public Law 93-380 reads, in part:

> (d)(1) The Commissioner is authorized to make grants to, and enter into contracts with, public agencies and private nonprofit organizations and with individuals for activities designed to carry out the purposes of this section at all levels of education, including preschool, elementary and secondary education, higher education, and adult education. These activities shall include—
>
> > (A) the development, evaluation, and dissemination by the applicant of curricula, textbooks, and other educational materials related to educational equity;

(B) preservice and inservice training for educational personnel including guidance and counseling with special emphasis on programs and activities designed to provide educational equity;

(C) research, development, and educational activities designed to advance educational equity;

(D) guidance and counseling activities, including the development of nondiscriminatory tests, designed to assure educational equity;

(E) educational activities to increase opportunities for adult women, including continuing educational activities and programs for underemployed and unemployed women;

(F) the expansion and improvement of educational programs and activities for women in vocational education, career education, physical education and educational administration.

Records of hearings on this Act now are available from the House Committee on Education and Labor. Reports of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare related to this Act will be available sometime during 1975.

Reports of the Senate and House Hearings on this Act will be available in 1975 (from the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare and the House Committee on Education and Labor). Information on submitting grant and contract proposals may be obtained from the Women's Program Staff, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20201.

The Civil Rights Act and Equal Employment Opportunities Act

In addition to the provisions summarized in Chart 50 for Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (as amended 1972), Guidelines for administering the Act address several areas of discrimination of potential interest to women. Briefly, these include: a definition of when "sex" is a bona fide occupational qualification (e.g., an actor or actress); prohibition of separate lines of promotion and seniority in an institution, corporation or industry; prohibition of discrimination against married women; prohibition of sex labeling for job advertising; prohibition of unequal "fringe benefits," including retirement plans, health insurance, profit sharing and leaves of absence; and prohibition of discriminatory policies relating to pregnancy and childbirth.

Protective Legislation for Women. Legislative changes to remove restrictive aspects of certain protective laws have benefited women who wish to work in the crafts. In the past, protective regulations frequently prevented women from working overtime, and from accumulating seniority. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) has stated that such laws do not take into account the special interests and abilities of some women; therefore, they are discriminatory on the basis of sex. Recent rulings of the EEOC hold that laws requiring special rest and meal periods or physical facilities for women are in violation of Title VII of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act. An employer must provide the same benefits for "both" sexes, thus require the same rest periods, etc.

By the end of 1973, 39 of the 40 states that had laws defining maximum daily or weekly hours for women had repealed these laws, or modified their enforcement in light of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. Ten states and Puerto Rico never had any such laws: Alabama, Alaska, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, West Virginia and Wyoming. This development is part of a broad shift from separate state labor laws for women and for men. These state laws were repealed following at least four court actions in 1971, ruling in favor of women complainants against Southern Bell Telephone; Industrial Welfare Commission; Raytheon Co.; and Westinghouse Electric Corp. (Lyle, 1972).

In 1973, six states repealed protective laws, other than those relating to number of hours of work permitted. California and Wyoming repealed bans on female bartenders, and Connecticut repealed a ban on female workers in taverns. Vermont repealed a law requiring women to be absent from work two weeks before and four weeks after childbirth. Alabama and Colorado repealed laws prohibiting women from working in mines (Carter, 1973). Other court cases summarized by Carter (1973) are presented in Appendix Q.

Maternity Leave: Employer Trends. Maternity leave with full reemployment rights became available to many more workers with the passage of Title VII (Civil Rights Act). A Department of Labor study indicated that 73 percent of employed women surveyed were receiving such leave in 1974. Seniority accumulation now cannot legally be interrupted by maternity leave. Changes such as these also make work in the crafts more attractive to women.

Disabilities caused by pregnancy, miscarriage, abortion or childbirth are to be considered temporary disabilities under new law, and treated under the same rules that hold for male employees. These disabilities are to be covered by health insurance plans and sick leave regulations offered women employees.

If an employer has no maternity leave policy, the law requires considering maternity leave as equivalent to any other temporary disability and justifiable for a "reasonable" period of time. Following maternity leave, a woman is entitled to reinstatement in her original employment position without loss of service credits. Complaints for violations of this law should be made to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Child Care and Tax Benefits. A woman may deduct child care expenses from her income tax provided her income does not exceed $27,600. If she is married and her joint income is over $18,000, her deduction is reduced 50¢ for each dollar of additional income. However, for a majority of working mothers childcare expenses up to $400 a month may be deducted for "employment related expenses" including household services. Childcare may be deducted for dependents under 15 years of age, and for physically or mentally handicapped dependents (including spouse) if the handicap renders the person incapable of caring for herself/himself.

In order to benefit from this deduction a woman must file the long income tax form, or, if married, a joint return. Provisions for this deduction are covered in the Revenue Act of 1971, and further details may be obtained from the local Internal Revenue Service Office.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Act (as amended, 1972) was passed to protect a woman's right to employment in any occupation for which she qualifies. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1800 G St., N.W. Washington, D.C. 20506) has been established to handle complaints relating to this basic principle.

Under the current law, a woman has the right to complain if any of the following occur:

- an employer's advertisement for employees carrier a sex label;
- an employer refuses to let you file an application for a position but accepts other applications;
- a union or employment agency refuses to refer you to job openings;
- a union refuses to accept you into membership;
- you are fired or laid off without cause;
- you are passed over for promotion for which you are qualified;
- you are paid less than others for comparable work;
- you are placed in a segregated seniority line;
- you are left out of training or apprenticeship programs;

Leaflet 55 published by the Women's Bureau, A Working Woman's Guide to Her Job Rights (1974) is a highly useful booklet and is available for 64¢ on request. HEW has also prepared a booklet, Sex Discrimination, (1974) which is available from the office for Civil Rights, HEW, Washington D.C., 20201 at no charge.

Affirmative Action Plans and Government Contractors

Executive Order 11246 (1965) prohibits discrimination by all federal contractors on the basis of race, color, religion or national origin. Executive Order 11375 (1968) amended this to include discrimination based on sex. Discrimination was defined in this legislation to cover essentially the same areas as Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (1964) making its terms immediately applicable to government contractors.

Government contractors and sub-contractors receiving $50,000 or more in federal contracts and, at the same time having at least 50 employees need written Affirmative Action Plans. This definition includes about 80 percent of all U.S. colleges and universities. A university having one department receiving a federal contract would have the provisions of Executive Order 11246 (as amended by 11375) apply to the entire institution. Other contractors receiving federal monies in excess of $50,000 include

- construction companies
- insurance companies
- individual insurance agents
- medical, legal and education services
- museums, art galleries
- non-profit organizations
- certain state and local governments

Executive Order 11246 differs from Title VII of the Civil Rights Act in that it requires government contracts covered to develop written affirmative action plans which contain the following components:

1. An analysis of current utilization of women and minorities
2. An analysis of the labor market availability of women and minorities for new employment openings
3. A set of goals and a timetable for achieving these goals representing affirmative action intent toward minorities and women to: a) hire; b) include in management training; and c) include in apprenticeship or other training opportunities. (See Order No. 4, 1970, and Revised Order No. 4, 1971)

Resources for Writing Affirmative Action Plans

Contractors covered by the requirements of Executive Order 11246 may obtain local workforce data from their State Employment Services upon request. Each State Employment Service was given guidelines for preparation of these data by the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, Department of Labor, in 1973.

Higher education institutions may obtain Availability Data: Minorities and Women (HEW, 1973) which provides national data on the availability of minorities and women for academic employment. This publication is planned to be updated as additional data become available.

A Manual for Determining the Labor Market Availability of Women and Minorities (HEW, 1974) provides a step-by-step procedure for a higher education institution to conduct a national labor market availability study for a particular job opening. This manual includes case examples for a radiologic technician, stationary engineers, a university comptroller, and a professor of international relations. It also provides listings of useful U.S. Census publications, manpower studies and statistical reports.

For further resources useful in developing affirmative action plans, see Appendix N.

Gains for Women in 1973-74 and Executive Order 11246

1973:

In one large university, salary reviews resulted in equity adjustments for 890 women (CACSW, 1973).

In another large university, 138 women received salary increases (CACSW, 1973).

At one university, a woman wrongfully terminated because she was pregnant was reinstated, and given 2-1/2 years toward her tenure obligations plus $2,400 in back-pay. Another woman at the same university had her salary increased from $18,000 to $28,000 per year and yet another was promoted and given an increase from $15,000 to $28,000 per year (CACSW, 1973).

In a third university, nine women were appointed to major administrative posts, and 179 women received promotions (CACSW, 1973). In universities in one HEW region, 84 women were hired in managerial positions in fulfillment of affirmative action goals, 2,390 in professional positions, 1,158 in technical positions, and 57 in crafts positions (CACSW, 1973).

American Telephone and Telegraph Co. agreed to pay $15 million in back pay to some 15,000 employees. In addition, they agreed to provide affirmative action plans to increase the utilization of women and minorities in each job classification of the 700 establishments within the Bell system (CACSW, 1973).

Delta Airlines agreed to change employment practices related to transfer and promotion for its 7,500 employees, including clerical and janitorial workers, stewardesses and reservation agents (CACSW, 1973).

1974:

The University of Utah reinstated a woman librarian and granted her $22,000 in back-pay (CACSW, 1974).

Rutgers University granted 15 women salary adjustments totalling $200,000 (CACSW, 1974). The University of Montana and the University of Boston also made back-pay adjustments to female complainants.

Other corporations receiving government contracts were busy preparing Affirmative Action Plans (Time, September 2, 1974) without waiting for legal complaints to be filed against them. Among such corporations were IBM, American Express Co., Pillsbury, Avon and CBS. Corporations are hiring experts to assist them in developing plans, Time reported.

Equal Rights Amendment

Early in 1974, 33 states had ratified the Equal Rights Amendment (38 are required for adoption). This Amendment mandates that the federal government and all state and local governments shall not abridge the rights of individuals because of there sex. The Amendment applies only to governmental action, and does not affect private sector relationships. The Equal Rights Amendment was not written after the other equal rights legislation; it was first introduced to Congress in 1923!

Questions related to the Equal Rights Amendment have been answered definitively by Chittick (1973), National Chairman of the organization which initiated this Amendment more than forty years ago. Answers to the following questions may be found in Appendix O of this volume:

1. Why is the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) for women necessary?
2. Why does a woman need a legal status?

3. What does the legal status of women have to do with the social issues of women?

4. Does the ERA affect the housewife-homemaker?

5. How does the ERA affect alimony and child-support laws?

6. How does ERA affect property laws?

7. What will happen to the present protective laws for women?

8. Will women be drafted?

9. Will women be assigned combat duty?

10. How does the ERA affect women's admittance to public colleges?

11. How does the ERA affect the Jury laws?

12. How does the ERA affect criminal laws, especially those concerning rape?

13. How does the ERA affect the privacy of women -- sleeping quarters and bathroom facilities?

14. How does the ERA affect states rights?

15. Is the ERA a "Lib" movement?

16. What is the National Woman's Party?

The Citizen's Advisory Council on the Status of Women (CACSW) has published a useful booklet, Interpretation of the Equal Rights Amendment in Accordance with Legislative History, (1974) which is available from the Council's office, Room 1336 Department of Labor Bldg., Washington, D.C. 20210.

Trends

Since the 1971 and 1972 amendments to the major laws affecting women were ratified, a series of court actions has demonstrated the strength of these laws (see Appendix Q).

Large institutions, corporations and industries, observing this trend in the courts, have taken steps to set their houses in order, partly to avoid court action and partly because the social climate is right.

At the end of 1974, some parts of the U.S. lagged behind others in providing equal opportunity to women in employment and education -- primarily in those regions where receptive attitudes toward women's rights also lagged behind. Some may argue that legal mandate precedes change (Lyle, 1972). There is, however, substantial evidence for the view that change is an interactive process, resulting from changing laws and changing customs and mores (Mead, 1974).

VI. THE RESOURCES: WHERE TO GET MORE INFORMATION

What's in this Section

No one compendium can give the counselor all that may be needed to develop and offer the most effective career guidance services for women and girls. We remarked at the outset that this is a fast-changing field in which information gets outdated quickly; it also is a fast-growing field -- by the time you read this chapter, the resources available when we prepared it will have been substantially increased.

Thus, we have organized this Sourcebook as an overview device by which counselors can become generally familiar with relevant basic resources. In this chapter, entry points are provided for seeking out further information. Some were referred to earlier in this compendium; others are presented here for the first time as possibly useful resources.

White items on the long list of organizations, publications, audio-visual products and so forth an individual counselor may find useful will depend greatly on individual needs. For example, a counselor who is especially interested in learning more about what research has to say on a given topic may wish to consult one or more of the annotated bibliographies cited here (in addition to the authors' own bibliography).

The first section of this chapter presents a variety of published products: Miscellaneous books and journal articles (categorized in four groups), newsletters, annotated bibliographies, journals, and career development inventories.

The second section lists organizations and facilities that a counselor might find helpful, or to which a client may be referred directly for some sort of assistance.

Finally, we have assembled together a list of films and other audio-visual products relevant to career counseling for women and girls.

We remind the reader that names and addresses, prices and availability of information may be out of date by the time this chapter is in print. Nevertheless, a starting point is provided here from which a systematic and valuable resource acquisition process can begin.

Published Products

The following are items which a counselor may give to girls and women to assist them in their career development and planning.

Bolles, R.N. What Color Is Your Parachute? A Practical Manual for Job-Hunters and Career Changers, Berkeley, Ca.: Ten Speed Press, 1972.

Catalyst: Self Guidance Series; Educational Opportunity Series; and Career Opportunity series. New York, 6 East 82nd Street, New York 10028.

Farmer, H. Guided Inquiry Group Career Counseling. Unpublished material available from the author at the College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61803 (1973).

Hahn, M.H., Planning Ahead After Forty, Los Angeles: Western Psychological Services, 1967.

Harmon, L. Career counseling for women. In Carter, D. and Rawlings, E. (Eds.), Psychotherapy for Women: Treatment Toward Equity. Springfield, Illinois: Charles Thomas & Sons, 1975.

Miller-Tiedeman, A. Decision making in retrospect: A self-report activity. Unpublished materials available from the author at the University of Northern Illinois, DeKalb, Illinois.

Occupational Outlook Handbook 1974-75 Edition, Wash., D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Labor, 1974.

Office of Career Development and Placement. Job Search Skills (three booklets), University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61803.

The Professional Job Hunting System: World's Fastest Way to Get a Job, New Jersey: Performance Dynamics, Inc., 1970.

Skelsey, A. The Working Mother's Guide to Her Home, Her Family and Herself, New York: Random House, 1970.

U. S. Department of Labor. Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Washington, D.C.: Author, 1965 (revised edition expected 1976).

These materials may be useful for counselor training, or to counselors directly when helping girls and women in career development.

Availability Data: Minorities and Women, U.S. Dept. of HEW, Washington, D.C., June, 1973.

California Personnel and Guidance Association. Career Development: A California Model for Career Guidance Curriculum K-Adult. Monograph No. 5, 1973, 654 East Commonwealth Avenue, Fullerton, California 92631.

Career Education Quick-List: A-V title listings of the Audio Visual Services Division of The Baker & Taylor Co., P.O. Box 230, Monence, Illinois 60954, 1974.

Dalrymple, Preparation for a Dual Role: Homemaker-Wage Earner with Adaptations to Inner City Youth, Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University (or on microfiche from ERIC Ex. 045 863), 1970.

Feminist Resources for Schools and Colleges: A Guide to Curricular Materials, Old Westbury, New York: Clearinghouse on Women's Studies, The Feminist Press, SUNY/College at Old Westbury, 1973.

Holland, J. Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, 1973.

Hughes, R. "Preparing for a dual role," Journal of Home Economics, Vol. 61, 1969.

Manual for Determining the Labor Market Availability of Women and Minorities, Wash., D.C.: U.S. Dept. of HEW, 1974.

Schlossberg, N.K. and Pietrofesa, J.J. Career Counseling for Women. The Counseling Psychologist, Vol. 4, No. 1, 1973.

State of California Education Committee Advisory Commission on the Status of Women. *Information for counselors on counseling California girls*, 1025 P St., Room 340, Sacramento Ca., 95814, 1973. (includes simulation game for attitude changes).

University Extension, UCLA. *Sounds of Change*, 10995 Le Conte Avenue, Los Angeles, California 90024, 1974.

Vetter, L. Planning ahead for the world of work, *American Vocational Journal*, *45* December, 1970.

The items that follow may be helpful (both to counselors and clients) in changing *attitudes* about sex role stereotypes.

Maccoby, E. and Jacklin, C. *The Psychology of Sex Differences*, Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 1974.

McBee, M.L. and Blake, K.A. *The American woman: Who will she be?* New York: Macmillan, 1974.

Mitchell, J.S. *Other Choices for Becoming a Woman*, Pittsburgh: Know, Inc., 1974.

The following may be useful resources for teaching *assertiveness* skills to girls and women.

Alberti, R.E. and Emmons, M.L. *Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior*, San Luis Obispo, Cal.: Impact, 1974.

Jakubowski-Spector, P. Facilitating the growth of women through assertive training. *The Counseling Psychologist*, Vol. 4, No. 1, 1973.

Lazarus, A. A. *Behavior Therapy and Beyond*, New York: McGraw Hill, 1972.

Newsletters

The Spokeswoman
Editor-Publisher: Susan Davis
5464 South Shore Drive
Chicago, Illinois 60615
(312) 667-3745
Rates: $7.00 per year for individuals (monthly)
$12.00 per year for organizations

Women Today
Editor: Barbara Jordan Moore
Publisher: Myra E. Barrar
Today Publications & News Service
National Press Building
Washington, D.C. 20004
(202) 628-6663
U.S. Rates: $18.00 per year; $30.00 two years
(Women Today is the only national biweekly news source devoted exclusively to the activities of the women's movement from an unbiased and unsponsored point of view.)
Subscribers to Women Today also receive free a regular report of the Washington Chapter of the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) which lists the progress of bills before Congress and recent court decisions affecting women.

NOW Acts (national newsletter)
NOW National Headquarters
1952 East 73rd Street, Room 106
Chicago, Illinois 60649
(312) 324-3067
Rates: $3.00 per year for non-members

Women's Rights Law Reporter
180 University Avenue
Newark, New Jersey 07102
Published quarterly

The Executive Woman
Editor: Shelley Gross
Publisher: Sandra Brown
747 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10017
Rates: $20.00 per year (10 issues)
A monthly newsletter for women in business.

On Campus with Women, Project on the status of and education of women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street, Washington, D.C. 20009.

Skirting the Capitol, a Newsletter about Legislation and Women, P.O. Box 4569, Sacramento, California 95825. An excellent source for information on who votes which way--and why.

Women's Studies Newsletter--order from The Clearing House on Women's Studies (above).

Current Annotated Bibliographies on Women

Astin, H. S., Suniewick, N. & Dweck, S. Women: A bibliography on their education and careers. Washington, D.C.: Human Service Press, 1971.

243 pages; 352 annotations. A survey of research conducted in the last ten years on the educational and occupational status of women in America. Includes abstracts and annotations of research literature and the authors' commentary.

Astin, H. S., Parelman, Allison & Fisher, A. Sex roles: An annotated research bibliography. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, in press.

379 pages; 456 annotations.

Bickner, M. L. Women at work: An annotated bibliography. Los Angeles: Manpower Research Center, University of California Los Angeles, 1974.

600 annotations. Among the topics covered in this bibliography were the education and training of women, participation of women in the labor force, women in selected occupations, special groups of women, and legal developments affecting women. All entries are indexed by author, title and subject.

Business and Professional Women's Foundation. Career counseling: New perspectives for women and girls. A selected annotated bibliography. Washington, D.C.: BPWF, 1972.

44 pages. Selected references on working women, women's education, and counselors. 149 annotations.

Business and Professional Women's Foundation. Women Executives. A selected annotated bibliography. Washington, D.C.: BPWF, 1970.

26 pages; 94 annotations. Selected references on women in positions at managerial, administrative and executive levels.

Gisler, L. Women: A bibliography.

Constantly updated by the author. For information concerning costs and availability, write the author at 102 West 80th Street, New York, N.Y. 10024 (25¢ [?])

Eastern College Personnel Officers. Careers for college graduates: An annotated bibliography of vocational materials. Bethlehem, Pa.: College Placement Council, Inc., 1972, pp. 34-35.

2 pages; 28 annotations.

Harmon, L. *Status of women in higher education: 1963-1972. A selective bibliography.* Series in Bibliography No. 2. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University of Science and Technology, 1972.

124 pages. This annotated bibliography reviewed literature from the fields of education, law, and the social sciences as it related to women's status in higher education. An introduction by the author presents an overview of literature reviewed.

Lyle, J. R. *Affirmative action programs for women: A survey of innovative programs.* Washington, D.C.: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1972, pp. 119-150.

32 pages; 216 annotations.

Spiegel, J. *Sex role concepts.* A selected annotated bibliography. Washington, D.C.: Business and Professional Women's Foundation, 1969.

31 pages; 98 annotations. Selected references on sex role concepts.

Spiegel, J. *Working mothers.* A selected annotated bibliography. Washington, D.C.: Business and Professional Women's Foundation, 1973.

24 pages; 78 annotations. Selected references on working mothers and wives.

Westervelt, E. M. & Fixter, D. A. *Women's higher and continuing education: An annotated bibliography with selected references on related aspects of women's lives.*

67 pages; 290 annotations. This annotated bibliography contained sections dealing with women's psychological development and sex differences, the education of adult women, and the participation of women in the labor force among other topics related to women. A listing of bibliographies on other areas of study pertaining to women was included.

Javonovich, J., et al. *Women and Psychology.* Cambridge, Mass.: Feminist Studies, 1972.

36 pages; 102 annotations. The bibliography is divided into 6 sections and each section is preceded by an introduction by the authors. Topics covered in the sections are: philosophy of science, methodology, and statistical uses; history of psychology; sex differences; sex role development and socialization of children; individual psychology and personality theory; individual development and group dynamics; and the small group in the development of political organization.

Education Commission of the States. Equal rights for women in education. 300 Lincoln Tower, 1860 Lincoln Street, Denver, Colorado 80203, 1974.

5 pages; no annotations; 66 entries in bibliography focusing on the promotion of equal rights for women in education.

Smith, Gerald. Counselor's guide to manpower information. Wash., D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968. Available from the U.S. Government Printing Office. (See Card #035).

101 pages. Publications pertaining to occupational and industry manpower literature; education, financial assistance, and placement information; manpower problems and issues; and special groups in the labor force (including handicapped workers, women and girls) were included in this annotated bibliography of government publications. Appendices listing addresses of Federal agencies and periodicals published by various departments of the Federal government.

Feminist Press. Bibliography on the treatment of girls in school. Box 334, Old Westbury, New York 11568: FP, 1972.

Free to students and teachers (if they include a stamped, self-addressed envelope).

Women's Bureau, Handbook on women workers, Washington, D.C. 20210: U.S. Department of Labor.

Unannotated. Contains many facts and figures about women and employment as well as an extensive bibliography. Available free from regional Women's Bureau.

Whaley, S. S. Women studies abstracts, P.O. Box 1, Rush, New York 14543.

Annotated. $10.00 per year for library edition (including annual index), $7.50 for individuals, $5.00 for students.

Sells, L. W. Current research on sex roles, 1181 Euclid Avenue, Berkeley, California 94708, 1972.

Annotated. Available from L. W. Sells. $2.50 for faculty administrators, and libraries, and $1.50 for students ($2.25 and $1.25 for third-class mail).

Oetzel, R. Annotated bibliography in E. Maccoby (Ed.) The Development of sex differences, Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1966.

This bibliography contains over 400 entries on the development of sex differences. Annotations are terse, but may be very useful for the reader researching sex differences.

Maccoby, E. & Jacklin, C. The psychology of sex differences. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1974.

This monumental volume contains 234 pages of annotated bibliography on the development of sex differences covering 1,400 research studies published since 1965; it begins where Oetzel's annotations leave off.

Journals

There are many periodicals that now devote regular coverage and article space to womens studies. Among those that may be of particular interest to the counselor are the following:

Civil Rights Digest (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Washington, D.C. 20425)

Journal of Vocational Behavior (Academic Press, New York: 111 5th Avenue, New York, New York 10003)

Journal of Counseling Psychology (American Psychological Association, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036)

Monthly Labor Review (Department of Labor, Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402)

Personnel and Guidance Journal (American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009)

Occupational Outlook Quarterly (Department of Labor, Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402)

The Counseling Psychologist, Division 17 (American Psychological Association, Washington University, Box 1180, St. Louis, Missouri 63130)

Vocational Guidance Journal (National Vocational Guidance Association). 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

Psychology Today (P.O. Box 2990, Boulder, Colorado 80302)

American Journal of Sociology (University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis, Chicago, Illinois 60637)

The University of Chicago School Review (University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60637)

Teachers College Record (Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 West 125th Street, New York, New York 10027)

Harvard Educational Review (Longfellow Hall, 13 Appian Way, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138)

American Psychologist (American Psychological Association, Inc., 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036)

Career Development Inventories

Holland, J. Self-Directed Search, 1972. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, 1974. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.

Crites, J. Career Maturity Inventory, 1973. New York: McGraw Hill.

Super, D. Career Development Inventory, 1974. Available from the author at Columbia University, Teachers, College, New York City, New York 10027.

Kuder Occupational Interest Survey, 1974. Chicago: Science Research Associates.

American College Testing Interest Profile, 1974. Iowa City, Iowa: ACT.

Ohio Vocational Interest Survey, 1970. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University.

Organizations

The number of organizations and facilities devoted to the career and social problems of women and girls has proliferated in the past several years. In addition, many social science and other organizations now have divisions of branches devoted to this area of inquiry. A partial listing follows.

The Womens Bureau

A particularly valuable resource for printed materials is the Womens Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor. A recent (July, 1974) publications list is reproduced in full here, to indicate the range of materials available through this channel.

Chart 51

Women's Units in 67 Organizations

Academy of Management
Committee on the Status of Women in the Management Profession
Chair: Kathryn M. Bartol
Dept. of Mgt., School of Business Admin.
U. of Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass. 01002

Adult Education Association
Commission on the Status of Women in Adult Education
Chair: Yvonne Rappaport, Consortium Bldg.,
George Mason U., Fairfax, Va. 22030

American Academy of Religion • Task Force on the Status of Women—The Academic Study of Religion
Co-Chairs: Mary K. Wakeman, Dept. of Religious Studies
Univ of NC Greensboro, NC 27412; Margaret M. Early, Dept. of
Religious Studies, Alverno College, Milwaukee, WI 53215.

American Anthropological Association •
Committee on the Status of Women in Anthropology
Co-Chairs: Carol Vance, Dept. of Anthropology, Columbia U., New York 10027; Lucie W. Saunders, Dept. of Anthropology, Lehman College, Bronx, N.Y. 10467

American Association for the Advancement of Science
Women's Caucus of the A.A.A.S.
Chair: Virginia Walbot, Dept. of Biochemistry,
U. of Georgia, Athens, Ga. 30601

American Association for Health & Physical Education
Committee on Women
Chair: Jon G. Shadduck, Drake U., Des Moines,
Iowa 50311

American Association of Immunologists •
Committee on the Status of Women
Chair: Helene C. Rauch, Dept. of Medical Microbiology, Stanford U., School of Medicine, Stanford, Cal. 94305

American Association of University Professors
Committee on the Status of Women in the Profession
Chair: Mary Gray, Dept. of Mathematics,
American University, Wash., DC 20016.
Contact: Margaret Rumbarger, Associate Secretary,
A.A.U.P., One Dupont Circle, Washington 20036

American Astronomical Society
Working Group on the Status of Women in Astronomy
Chair: Anne P. Cowley
Research Associate, Astronomy Dept.
U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48103

American Chemical Society
Women Chemists Committee
Chair: Su   Collier, Research Lab.,
Eastm   odak Co., Rochester, N.Y. 14650

American College Personnel Association
Women's Task Force
Chair: Mary Howard, Federal City College,
425 Second Street, NW, Washington 20001

American Physiological Association
Task Force on Women in Physiology
Chair: Elizabeth Tidball, Dept. of Physiology,
George Wash. U. Medical Center, 2300 Eye St., NW, Washington 20037

American Political Science Association •
Committee on the Status of Women in the Profession
Chair: Carole Parsons, 2400 Virginia Ave., NW,
#1102, Washington 20037

Women's Caucus for Political Science
Chair: JoAnne Aviel, Calif. State, San Francisco, CA 94132

Permanent address of caucus: Mount Vernon College, 2100 Foxhall Rd., NW, Washington 20007

American Psychological Association
Ad Hoc Committee on Women in Psychology
Chair: Martha Mednick, Dept. of Psychology,
Howard U., Washington 20001
Staff Liaison: Brenda Gurel, A.P.A. 1200 17th St., NW, Washington 20036

American Public Health Association
Women's Caucus
Correspondent: Mary Plaska, A.P.H.A. Women's Caucus, 1015–16th St., N.W., Washington 20036

American Society of Biological Chemists
Subcommittee on the Status of Women
Chair: Loretta Leive, Bldg. 4, Rm. 111,
National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Md. 20014

American Society for Microbiology •
Committee on the Status of Women Microbiologists
Chair: Mary L. Robbins, School of Medicine and Health Sciences, George Wash. U.,
2300 Eye St., NW, Washington 20037

American Society for Public Administration
Standing Committee on Women in Public Administration,
Chair: Ms. June Martin, Rm. 830,
State Leg. Bldg., Albany, NY 12224

American Society for Training and Development
Women's Caucus
Steering Committee: Shirley McCune, Center for Human Relations, N.E.A., 1201–16th St., NW Washington 20036; Althea Simmons, Director of Training, N.A.A.C.P., 200 E. 27th St., New York 10016

American Sociological Association
Ad Hoc Committee on the Status of Women in Sociology
Chair: Cora B. Marrett, De   of Sociology,
Western Michigan U., K   azoo, Mich. 49001

Sociologists for Women in Society
(Independent group, formerly a caucus)
Chair: Joan Huber, Dept. of Sociology, U. of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. 61801

College Music Society
Women's Caucus
Co-Chairs: Carolyn Raney, Peabody Conservatory of Music, Baltimore, Md. 21202; Adrienne F. Block, Dept. of Performing & Creative Arts, Staten Island Community College, N.Y. 10301

Graduate Women in Science (Sigma Delta Epsilon)
President: Hope Hopps, 1762 Overlook Dr., Silver Spring, Md. 20903

Latin American Studies Association
Women's Coalition of Latin Americanists
Co-Chair: Elsa M. Chaney, Dept. of Pol. Sci., Fordham U., Bronx, N.Y. 10458; Asuncion Lavrin, 8501 Manchester Rd., Silver Spring, Md. 20901

Women's Committee
Chair: Nancie L. Gonzalez, Dept. of Anthropology, Boston U., Boston 02215

Linguistic Society of America
Women's Caucus
Correspondents: Lynette Hirschman, Georgette Loup, 162 W. Hansberry, Philadelphia 19144

Modern Language Association •
Commission on the Status of Women in the Profession
Chair: Dr. Elaine Reuben, 364 Bascom Hall, U. of Wisc., Madison 53706
Women's Caucus
President: Dolores B. Schmidt,
R.D. 3, Slippery Rock, Pa. 16057

National Association of Bank Women•
Asst. Exec. Dir.: Sharon Pierce
N.A.B.W., 111 E. Wacker Dr., Chicago 60601

National Association of Student Personnel Administrators
Task Force on Women
Chair: E. Susan Petering, Asst. Dean of Students, Framingham State College, Framingham, Mass. 01701

National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors
Executive Director: Joan McCall,
1028 Connecticut Ave., NW, Washington 20036

National Council for the Social Studies
Committee on Social Injustice for Women
Chair: Dell Felder, U. of Houston, Houston 77004

National Council of Administrative Women in Education
President: Fern Ritter, 1815 Fort Myer Dr., N., Arlington, Va. 22209

National Council on Family Relations
Task Force on Women's Rights and Responsibilities
Chair: Rose Somerville, Sociology Dept., California State College, San Diego, Cal. 92115

Chart 51 (Continued)

American Economic Association
Committee on the Status of Women in the Economics Profession
Chair: Carolyn S. Bell, Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass. 02181

American Educational Research Association
Women's Caucus
Chair: Noele Krenkel, Researcher, San Francisco Unified School District, 135 Van Ness, San Francisco, Cal. 94102

American Federation of Teachers
Women's Rights Committee
Chair: Marjorie Stern, 1012–14th Street, NW Washington 20004

American Historical Association *
Committee on Women Historians
Chair: Jane deH. Matthews
U. of North Carolina, Greensboro, N.C. 27412
Staff Liaison: Eleanor Straub, 400 A Street, SE, Washington 20003
Coordinating Committee on Women in the Historical Profession
Chair: Sandi Cooper, Richmond College, C.U.N.Y., Staten Island, N.Y. 10301

American Institute of Planners
Women's Rights Committee
Chair: Diana C. Donald, 1776 Mass. Ave., NW, Washington 20036

American Library Association *
Social Responsibilities Round Table
Task Force on the Status of Women
Chair: Lynne Rhodes
4004 Whitman North, Seattle, Wash. 98103

American Mathematical Society
Association for Women in Mathematics (Independent group)
Chair: Mary Gray, Dept. of Mathematics, American University, Washington 20016

American Personnel and Guidance Association
Women's Caucus
Correspondent: Beverly B. Clark, 10649 Weymouth St., Bethesda, Md. 20014

American Philological Association
Women's Caucus
Chair: Sarah B. Pomeroy, Hunter College, Box 1264, 695 Park Avenue, New York 10021
Committee on the Status of Women
Chair: Mary R. Lefkowitz, Dept. of Greek & Latin, Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass. 02181

American Philosophical Association
Women's Caucus
Chair: Mary Mothersill, Dept. of Philosophy, Barnard College, New York 10027
Society for Women in Philosophy (Independent Group)
Chair: Hannah Hardgrave, Dept. of Philosophy, Western Illinois U., Macomb, Ill. 61455

American Physical Society *
Committee on Women in Physics
Chair: Esther Conwell, Physics Research Lab., Xerox Sq. W–114, Rochester, N.Y. 14644

American Speech and Hearing Association
Subcommittee on the Status of Women
Chair: Dorothy K. Marge, 8011 Longbrook Rd., Springfield, Va. 22152

American Statistical Association
Caucus for Women in Statistics
Chair: Donna Brogan, Dept. of Statistics and Biometry, Emory U., Atlanta, Ga. 30322
Committee on Women in Statistics
Chair: Jean D. Gibbons, College of Commerce and Business Administration, U. of Alabama University, Ala. 35486

American Studies Association
Committee on Women
National Coordinator: Joanna S. Zangrando, 501 Mineola Ave., Akron, Ohio 44320

Association of American Geographers
Committee on Women in Geography
Chair: Ann Larrimore, Dept. of Geography, U. of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48104

Association of American Law Schools *
Committee on Women in the Legal Profession
Presiding Members: Ruth B. Ginsburg, Columbia Law School, 435 West 116th St., New York 10027; Shirley R. Bysiewicz, U. of Connecticut School of Law, 1280 Asylum Ave., West Hartford, Conn. 06105

Association of Asian Studies
Committee on the Status of Women
Chair: Joyce K. Kallgren, Center for Chinese Studies, 2168 Shattuck Ave., Berkeley, Cal. 94705

Association of Women in Architecture *
President: Dorothy G. Harrison, 2115 Pine Crest Dr., Altadena, Cal. 91001

Association for Women in Psychology *
Public Relations Editor: Leigh Marlowe, Manhattan Community College, 180 West End Ave., New York 10023
Correspondent: Dorothy Camara, 70012 Western Ave., Chevy Chase, Md. 10023
Liaison: Dolores Muhich, 516 S. University Ave., Carbondale, Ill. 62901

Association of Women in Science * (Independent group)
President: Estelle Ramey, 1818 R St., NW, Washington 20009

Biophysical Society *
Professional Opportunities for Women of the Biophysical Society—Caucus of Women Biophysicists
Chair: Daphne Hare, School of Medicine, S.U.N.Y. Buffalo, N.Y. 14215

Church Employed Women *
Contact: Mildred G. Lehr, The Westminster Press, 900 Witherspoon Bldg, Philadelphia 19107

College Art Association
Commission on the Status of Women in Art and Women's Caucus
Chair: Ann Harris, 560 Riverside Dr. #17P, New York 10027

Compiled by the American Association of University Women

National Council of Teachers of English
Women's Committee
Chair: Janet Emig, Dept. of English, Rutgers U., New Brunswick, N.J. 08903

National Education Association
Women's Caucus
Chair: Helen Bain, N.E.A., 1201–16th St., NW Washington 20036

National Vocational Guidance Association
Commission on the Occupational Status of Women
Chair: Thelma C. Lennon, Director, Pupil Personnel Services, Dept. of Public Instruction, Raleigh, N.C. 27602

Philosophy of Education Society
Women's Caucus
Chair: Elizabeth S. Maccia,
Dept. of History and Philosophy of Education, Indiana U., Bloomington, Ind. 47401
Committee on the Status of Women (same)

Population Association of America
Women's Caucus
Chair: Nancy E. Williamson, Brown U., Providence, R.I. 02912

Professional Women's Caucus
P.O. Box 1057, Radio City Station, New York 10019
President
Sue Caplan, Esq., 743 5th Ave., N.Y., N.Y. 10022

Society for Cell Biology
Women in Cell Biology
Chair: Virginia Walbot, Dept. of Biochemistry, U. of Georgia, Athens, Ga. 30601

Society of American Archivists
Ad Hoc Committee on the Status of Women in the Archival Profession
Chair: Mabel Deutrich, Director, Military Archives Div., National Archives & Records Service, Washington 20408

Society of Women Engineers *
Executive Secretary: Winifred D. White, 345 E. 47th St., New York 10017

United Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A.
Task Force on Women
Co-Chairs: Patricia Doyle and Elaine Homrighouse, Board of Christian Education, United Presbyterian Church, Witherspoon Bldg., Philadelphia 19107

Women Architects, Landscape Architects, and Planners
39 Martin St. Cambridge Mass 02138

Women in Communications * President: Ms. Margot Sherman, One Stoneleigh Pl., Bronx N.Y. 10708

A number of these organizations have recently formed a federation to coordinate their efforts, share resources, and promote professional career opportunities for women:

Federation of Organizations for Professional Women
1346 Conn. Ave. NW, Suite 1122
Washington, D.C. 20036

---

* These groups all have a known roster of women. Others have channels through which women may be referred or print listings of job openings in their newsletters.

ABOUT THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

Functions and Services of the Women's Bureau. 1969.
A Doughty Lady Turns 50. Reprint from *Manpower*, March 1970.

FACTS ABOUT WOMEN WORKERS

Why Women Work. 1974.
The Myth and the Reality. 1974.
Women Workers (by State). (Reports for 50 States, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, the District of Columbia, and the Washington, D.C., Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.)
Highlights of Women's Employment and Education. 1974.
Twenty Facts on Women Workers. 1974.
Women Workers Today. 1973.
Facts About Women Heads of Households and Heads of Families. 1973.
A Guide to Sources of Data on Women and Women Workers for the United States and for Regions, States, and Local Areas. 1972.
Calling All Women in Federal Service: Know Your Rights and Opportunities. Leaflet 53. 1972. 35¢.
Who Are the Working Mothers? Leaflet 37. 1972. 25¢.
Women Workers in Regional Areas and in Large States and Metropolitan Areas, 1971. 1972.
Guide to Conducting a Consultation on Women's Employment With Employers and Union Representatives. Pamphlet 12. 1971.
Automation and Women Workers. 1970.
Facts About Women's Absenteeism and Labor Turnover. 1969.
Household Employment--New Careers in an Old Business. Reprint from *Word Magazine*, February 1969.
Charts: (8 x 10½ inches, black and white)
  Women Are Underrepresented as Managers and Skilled Craft Workers. 1974.
  Most Women Work Because of Economic Need. 1974.
  Fully Employed Women Continue To Earn Less Than Fully Employed Men of Either White or Minority Races. 1974.

CAREER OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN

Steps to Opening the Skilled Trades to Women. 1974.
Careers for Women in the 70's. 1973. 50¢.
Counseling Women for Careers in Business. Reprint from *The Personnel Woman*, July/August 1973.
Help for the Woman Breadwinner. Reprint from *Manpower*, February 1973.
Look Who's Wearing Lipstick! Reprint from *Manpower*, December 1972.
Why Not Be--
  an Appentice? Leaflet 52. (In press)
  an Engineer? Leaflet 41. 1971. 25¢.
  a Medical Technologist? Leaflet 44. 1971.
  a Technical Writer? Leaflet 47. 1971. 25¢.
  An Urban Planner? Leaflet 49. 1970. 25¢.
  an Optometrist? Leaflet 42. 1968.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Get Credit for What You Know. Leaflet 56. 1974. 25¢.
Career Planning for High School Girls. Reprint from Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Summer 1973.
Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women. Pamphlet 10. 1971. $1.55.
Help Improve Vocational Education for Women and Girls in Your Community. 1971. 25¢.

CHILD CARE SERVICES

Day Care Facts. Pamphlet 16. 1973. 60¢.
Day Care: An Employer's Plus. 1973.
Employer Personnel Practices and Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers in New York City. 1973.
Children on Campus: A Survey of Pre-Kindergarten Programs at Institutions of Higher Education in the United States. 1973.
Federal Funds for Day Care Projects. Pamphlet 14. 1972. $1.40.
Day Care Services: Industry's Involvement. Bulletin 296. 1971. $1.00.
Child Care Services Provided by Hospitals. Bulletin 295. 1970.

SPECIAL GROUPS

Facts on Women Workers of Minority Races. 1974.
Women Offender Highlights. 1973.
Fact Sheet on Women of Spanish Origin in the United States. 1972.
How You Can Help Reduce Barriers to the Employment of Mature Women. 1969.
Women in Labor Unions. Reprint from Monthly Labor Review, February 1971.
Negro Women in the Population and in the Labor Force. 1967.
College Women Seven Years After Graduation: Resurvey of Women Graduates--Class of 1957. Bulletin 292. 1966.

STANDARDS AND LEGISLATION AFFECTING WOMEN

Steps To Advance Equal Employment Opportunity for Women. 1974.
A Working Woman's Guide to Her Job Rights. Leaflet 55. (In press)
State Hours Laws for Women: Changes in Status Since the Civil Rights Act of 1964. 1974.
State Equal Rights Amendments. 1973.
Brief Highlights of Major Federal Laws and Order on Sex Discrimination. 1974.
Laws on Sex Discrimination in Employment: Federal Civil Rights Act, Title VII--State Fair Employment Practices Laws--Executive Orders. Reprinted 1973 with new appendixes.
New Law Liberalizes Child Care Deductions. Legislative Series 1. 1972.
Education Act Extends Sex Discrimination and Minimum Wage Provisions. Legislative Series 2. 1973.
Divorce Laws as of October 1, 1973. (Table) (In press)
Marriage Laws as of October 1, 1973. (Table) (In press)
Conozca Sus Derechos. Leaflet 39-A. 1967. (Spanish Translation of "Know Your Rights.")

INTERNATIONAL

20 Years of International Work. Reprint from *International Labor*, May-June 1964.

Report Series:

- IR-1 Women in High-Level Elective and Appointive Positions in National Governments. 1963.
- IR-2 Political Rights of Women in Member Nations of the United Nations. 1963.
- IR-3 Policies of National Governments on Employing Women. 1963.
- IR-4 Equal Pay in Member Nations of the International Labor Organization. 1963.
- IR-5 Protective Labor Legislation for Women in 91 Countries. 1963.
- IR-6 Maternity Protection and Benefits in 92 Countries. 1963.
- IR-7 Notes on Women's Employment in the United States and Nine European Countries. 1963.

REPORTS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

Women in 1972. Issued by the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women. Washington, D.C. April 1973. $1.25.
Women in 1971. Issued by the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women. Washington, D.C. January 1972. 80¢.
Women in 1970. Issued by the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women. Washington, D.C. March 1971. 70¢.
American Women, 1963-1968. Report of the Interdepartmental Committee on the Status of Women. October 11, 1968. $1.05.
Report on Progress in 1965 on the Status of Women. Second Annual Report of the Interdepartmental Committee and Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women. December 31, 1965. 1966.

President's Commission on the Status of Women:
- American Women. Report of the Commission. 1963.
- Reports of Committees on--
  - Civil and Political Rights. 1964.
  - Education. 1964.
  - Federal Employment. 1963.
  - Home and Community. 1963.
  - Private Employment. 1964.
  - Protective Labor Legislation. 1963.
  - Social Insurance and Taxes. 1963. $1.80.
- Report on Four Consultations--
  - Private Employment Opportunities, New Patterns in Volunteer Work, Portrayal of Women by the Mass Media, Problems of Negro Women. 1963.

CONFERENCE REPORTS

Report of Consultation on Businesses in Household Employment and Followup Survey of Participating Firms. 1973.
American Women at the Crossroads: Directions for the Future. Fiftieth Anniversary Conference of the Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. June 11-13, 1970. 1971.

CONFERENCE REPORTS--Continued

Job Horizons for Women and Girls in the District of Columbia. Washington, D.C. December 6-7, 1968. 1969.

1968: Time for Action. Highlights of the Fourth National Conference of Commissions on the Status of Women. Washington, D.C. June 20-22, 1968. 1969.

Report of a Consultation on the Status of Household Employment held in Chicago, Ill. May 20, 1967. 1968.

Targets for Action. The Report of the Third National Conference of Commissions on the Status of Women. Washington, D.C. June 28-30, 1966. 1967.

Progress and Prospects. The Report of the Second National Conference of Governors' Commissions on the Status of Women. Washington, D.C. July 28-30, 1965. 1966.

HOW TO ORDER PUBLICATIONS

Publications for which no price is listed may be obtained from the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210.

Single copies of publications may be obtained also from the following Women's Bureau Regional Offices:
Region I -- 1612-C JFK Federal Building, Boston, Mass. 02203.
Region II -- 1515 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10036.
Region III -- 3535 Market Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19104.
Region IV -- 1371 Peachtree Street NE., Atlanta, Ga. 30309.
Region V -- 230 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill. 60604.
Region VI -- 1100 Commerce Street, Dallas, Texas 75202.
Region VII -- 911 Walnut Street, Kansas City, Mo. 64106.
Region VIII -- 1961 Stout Street, Denver, Colo. 80202.
Region IX -- 450 Golden Gate Avenue, Box 36017, San Francisco, Calif. 94102.
Region X -- 506 Second Avenue, Seattle, Wash. 98104.

Publications for which a price is listed may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. A discount of 25 percent is allowed on orders of 100 copies or more of any single publication.

NOTE.--Government documents' prices are subject to change without prior notice. Therefore, prices in effect when your order is filled may differ from prices on this list. Since it is not feasible to change prices shown in Government documents in print, the price printed in a document may differ from the price in effect when your order is processed.

Women's Bureau publications may be purchased also from the Regional Offices, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, at any of the following addresses:
Region I -- 1603 JFK Federal Building, Boston, Mass. 02203.
Region II -- 1515 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10036.
Region III -- P.O. Box 13309, Philadelphia, Pa. 19107.
Region IV -- 1371 Peachtree Street NE., Atlanta, Ga. 30309.
Region V -- 300 South Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill. 60606.
Region VI -- 1100 Commerce Street, Room 6B7, Dallas, Tex. 75202.
Regions VII and VIII -- 911 Walnut Street, Kansas City, Mo. 64106.
Regions IX and X -- 450 Golden Gate Avenue, Box 36017, San Francisco, Calif. 94102.

If you would like to receive notices of future Women's Bureau publications, write to the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210. Please state the specific subject in which you are interested and give your name and mailing address.

Government Organizations Providing Publications about Women

Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women
Washington, D.C. 20210
Appointed by the President (1963), report to President
Director: Jacqueline G. Gutwillig

Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, DOL
Washington, D.C. 20210
Director: Carmen Maymi

Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, HEW, 1973
(See Women's Ed. Equity Act, 1974)
Contact: Women's Program Staff
U. S. Office of Education
Washington, D.C. 20201

Advisory Committee on the Economic Role of Women, est. 1973 by the President, reports to the President's Council of Economic Advisors

Non-Government Organizations Providing Publications about Women

Project on the Status and Education of Women
Association of American Colleges
Director: Bernice Sandler
1818 R Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20009

Education Commission of the States, Project to Promote Equal Rights for Women in Education
Funded by Ford Foundation for 147 K
Headquarters: Denver, Colorado
300 Lincoln Tower, 1800 Lincoln Street, 80203
Ex. director: Wendell Pierce
Established, 1965
Chairman: Governor Reubin, O.D.
Askew, Florida

American Council on Education (ACE)
Office of Research est. 1965, Council est. 1918
Washington, D.C. 22036 (One Dupont Circle)

Business & Professional Women's Foundation
Established, 1956
2012 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(Research, training, fellowships, publishing)

National Organization for Women
P.O. Box 114, Cathedral Station,
New York, New York 10025

Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, of NEA (National Education Association)
1156 15th Street, N.W., Suite 918
Washington, D.C. 20036

Publishing Houses with Materials Available on Women

Association of American Colleges, 1818 "R" Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Project on the Status and Education of Women -- Bernice Sandler. Many fine publications, statistics, bibliographies, etc. Write for information.

ERIC Research Currents, The Emergence of Women's Courses in Higher Education. Publications Department, American Association for Higher Education, One Du Pont Circle, Suite 780, Washington, D.C. 20036. Price: $.15.

KNOW, Inc., P.O. Box 10197, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15232. Send for lists--lots of good stuff! (Write same organization at P.O. Box 86031, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15221 for Catalog on Feminist Children's Books.)

Nonsexist Curricular Materials for Elementary Schools, Ed. by Laurie Olsen Johnson. Order from The Clearing House on Women's Studies, The Feminist Press, Box 334, Old Westbury, New York 11568.

The Clearing House on Women's Studies, The Feminist Press, Box 334, Old Westbury, New York 11568. Excellent source for curricular materials.

Women's Studies Abstracts, issued quarterly, P.O. Box 1, Rush, New York 14543. Price: $7.50.

Catalyst

A variety of guidance publications are available from this organization, located at 6 East 82nd Street, New York, New York 10028, for approximately $1.00 each.

Chart 52

Catalyst National Network of Local Resource Centers

CALIFORNIA

ADVOCATES FOR WOMEN, INC.
564 Market Street #218
San Francisco, Calif. 94104
(415) 989-5449
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Career counseling, job referral, placement
No fees

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, LONG BEACH
Community Counseling Center
6101 East Seventh Street, 203 Adm. Annex
Long Beach, Calif. 90840
(213) 498-4001
Monday-Thursday, 8:00 a.m. to 7:00 p.m.
Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
Registration fee. Other fees vary

THE CLAREMONT COLLEGES
Special Academic Programs and
Office for Continuing Education
Harper Hall 160
Claremont, Calif. 91711
(714) 626-8511
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College-sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, job referral, continuing education courses
Registration fee

CYPRESS COLLEGE
Career Planning Center
9200 Valley View Street
Cypress, Calif. 90630
(714) 826-2220 Ext. 221
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.
Monday-Thursday, 6:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling
No fees

FOOTHILL COLLEGE
Continuing Education for Women
12345 El Monte
Los Altos Hills, Calif. 94002
(415) 948-8590 Ext. 258
Monday-Friday, 10:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, job referral, continuing education courses
No fees

MARKET PLACE, A MANAGEMENT SEARCH AGENCY
1901 Avenue of the Stars
Los Angeles, Calif. 90067
(213) 553-4088
Monday-Saturday, by appointment
Independent private agency
Job placement
Fees vary

NEW WAYS TO WORK
457 Kingsley Avenue
Palo Alto, Calif. 94301
(415) 321-WORK
Monday-Friday, 9:30 a.m. to 2:30 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Career counseling, job referral, placement
No fees

PROGRAM ADVISORY SERVICE,
UCLA EXTENSION
10995 Le Conte Avenue, Room 215
Los Angeles, Calif. 90024
(213) 825-2401 Ext. 250 or 261
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Monday evening, 6:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m.
College-sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, job referral information, continuing education courses
No fees

CALIFORNIA (cont.)

RESOURCE CENTER FOR WOMEN
499 Hamilton Ave., Suite 204
Palo Alto, Calif. 94301
(415) 324-1710
Monday-Thursday, 10:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, job referral, placement
Fees vary

UCSD EXTENSION COUNSELING SERVICES
University of California, San Diego
P.O. Box 109
La Jolla, Calif. 92037
(714) 453-2000
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses, job referral
No registration fee. Other fees vary

THE WOMEN'S OPPORTUNITIES CENTER
Univ. of California Extension, Irvine
Irvine, Calif. 92664
(714) 833-7128
Monday-Friday, 10:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No fees

WOMEN'S PLACE, INC.
1901 Avenue of the Stars
Los Angeles, Calif. 90067
(213) 553-0870
Monday-Friday, 9:30 a.m. to 2:30 p.m.
Independent private
Career counseling, workshops, job referral, 5-hour day
Fees vary

COLORADO

COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY
Women's Programs
Center for Continuing Education
Ft. Collins, Colorado 80521
(303) 491-5288
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Career counseling, continuing education courses
No registration fee. Other fees vary

CONNECTICUT

CONNECTICUT COLLEGE
Career Counseling and Placement
New London, Conn. 06320
(203) 442-5391 Ext. 218
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, job referral, placement
No fees

HARTFORD COLLEGE
Counseling Center
50 Elizabeth Street
Hartford, Conn. 06115
(203) 236-5838
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses, job referral, placement
Registration fee only

CONNECTICUT (cont.)

NEW CONCEPT
111 Saugatuck Avenue
Westport, Conn. 06880
(203) 226-5641
Monday-Friday, 9:30 a.m. to 3:30 p.m.
Independent private agency
Job referral, resume preparation, placement
No registration fee. Other fees vary

UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT
Continuing Education for Women, U-56W
Storrs, Conn. 06268
(203) 486-3441
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

YALE UNIVERSITY WOMEN'S ORGANIZATION
Information and Counseling Service
215 Park Street
New Haven, Conn. 06520
(203) 436-8242
Monday-Wednesday, 10:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, job referral
Registration fee. Other fees vary

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION
422 Summer Street
Stamford, Conn. 06901
(203) 348-7727
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 10:00 p.m.
Saturday, 9:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m.
National organization
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses
Registration fee

DELAWARE

McELROY & DOBAN, INC.
2115D Concord Pike, Fairfax
Wilmington, Del. 19803
(302) 658-8647
Monday-Friday, 8:15 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Independent private agency
Career counseling, job referral, resume preparation, placement
No registration fee
Placement fee individually negotiated

UNIVERSITY OF DELAWARE
Division of Continuing Education
Clayton Hall
Newark, Del. 19711
(302) 738-2214
Monday-Thursday, 8:30 a.m. to 9:00 p.m.
Friday, 8:30-5:00. Saturday, 9:00-noon
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No registration fee. Other fees vary

Chart 52 (continued)

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

DISTAFFERS RESEARCH
& COUNSELING CENTER
4625a 41st Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016
(202) 362-9404
Five day, thirty hour week
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, job referral
No registration fee. Other fees vary

GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY
Continuing Education for Women
2029 K Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006
(202) 676-7036
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses, job referral
Fees vary

JOB MARKET, INC.
1816 Jefferson Place, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 785-4155
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:30 p.m.
Independent private agency
Job placement
No registration fee
Employer pays placement fee

FLORIDA

COUNCIL FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR WOMEN OF CENTRAL FLORIDA, INC.
1 West Church Street, Third Floor
Orlando, Florida 32801
(305) 423-4813
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 12:30 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses
No fees

THE GREATER MIAMI COUNCIL FOR THE CONTINUING EDUCATION OF WOMEN
Miami-Dade Community College
300 N.E. Second Avenue
Miami, Florida 33132
(305) 577-6840
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, limited job referral, continuing education courses.
No registration fee. Other fees vary

ILLINOIS

APPLIED POTENTIAL
Box 19
Highland Park, Ill. 60035
(312) 432-0620
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Non-profit educational corporation
Professional counselors
Educational, career and personal counseling.
No registration fee. Other fees vary

HARPER COLLEGE COMMUNITY
COUNSELING CENTER
Palatine, Illinois 60067
(312) 359-4200
Monday-Thursday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
6:00 p.m. to 10:00 p.m.
Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling
No registration fee. Other fees

ILLINOIS (cont.)

MORAINE VALLEY COMMUNITY COLLEGE
Adult Career Resources Center
10900 South 88th Avenue
Palos Hills, Ill. 60465
(312) 974-4300
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling.
No registration fee

PHILLIPS RESEARCH FOUNDATION
126 North Wright
Naperville, Ill. 60540
(312) 357-3180
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Foundation sponsored, independent office.
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses
Registration fee. Other fees vary.

SOUTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
General Studies Division
Office of Continuing Education
Edwardsville, Ill. 62025
(618) 692-2242
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office.
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses.
No fees.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS,
URBANA-CHAMPAIGN
Student Personnel Office for Married Students and Continuing Education for Women
610 East John Street
Champaign, Ill. 61820
(217) 333-3137
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office.
Educational and career counseling.
No fees.

WOMEN'S INK
2051 Ogden Avenue
Downers Grove, Ill. 60515
(312) 969-2090
Monday-Saturday, 9:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m.
Independent private agency.
Educational and career counseling, job referral and placement
No registration fee. Other fees vary.

INDIANA

INDIANA UNIVERSITY
Continuing Education for Women
Owen Hall
Bloomington, Indiana 47401
(812) 337-1684
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses.
Fees vary

UNIVERSITY CENTER FOR WOMEN
Purdue University
2101 Coliseum Blvd. East
Fort Wayne, Indiana 46805
(219) 482-5121
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon
College sponsored office.
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses, job referral
Fees vary.

IOWA

DRAKE UNIVERSITY
Women's Programs
Center for Continuing Education
Des Moines, Iowa 50311
(515) 271-2183
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses.
No fee for individual counseling
Fee for group sesssions

UNIVERSITY COUNSELING SERVICE
Iowa Memorial Union
University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa 52242
(319) 353-4484
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational, vocational and personal counseling
Fees vary for non-students

KANSAS

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS
Student Services
Extramural Independent Study Center
Division of Continuing Education
Lawrence, Kansas 66044
(913) 864-4792
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon
1:00 p.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored
Educational and career counseling, continuing education (independent study, classes)
No registration fee. Other fees vary

MASSACHUSETTS

BOSTON PROJECT FOR CAREERS
83 Prospect Street
West Newton, Mass. 02165
(617) 969-2339
Four days, 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, job referral, placement
Registration fee only.

CIVIC CENTER AND CLEARING HOUSE, INC.
14 Beacon Street
Boston, Mass. 02108
(617) 227-1762
Monday-Friday, 9:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, job referral
No fee for volunteer placements.
$10.00 fee for consultation of the Career and Vocational Advisory Service

SMITH COLLEGE
Vocational Office
Pierce Hall
Northampton, Mass. 01060
(413) 584-2700
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
Official college office. Restricted to alumnae.
Educational and career counseling, job referral and placement.
No fees.

MASSACHUSETTS (cont.)

WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL
& INDUSTRIAL UNION
Career Services
264 Boylston Street
Boston, Mass. 02116
(617) 536-5651
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Career counseling, job referral and placement
No registration fee. Placement fees vary

WOMEN'S OPPORTUNITY RESEARCH CENTER
Middlesex Community College
Division of Continuing Education
Spring Road
Bedford, Mass. 01730
(617) 275-1590
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

MICHIGAN

MICHIGAN TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY
Center for Continuing Education for Women
Houghton, Mich. 49931
(906) 487-2270
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No registration fee. Other fees vary

MONTCALM COMMUNITY COLLEGE
Area Guidance Center
Sidney, Michigan 48885
(517) 328-2111
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Evenings by appointment
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling
No fees

OAKLAND UNIVERSITY
Continuum Center
Rochester, Michigan 48063
(313) 377-3033
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored
Personal, educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
Continuing Education for Women
Kalamazoo, Mich. 49001
(616) 383-1860
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 12 noon.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

MINNESOTA

MINNESOTA WOMEN'S CENTER
University of Minnesota
301 Walter Library
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455
(612) 373-3850
Monday-Friday, 7:45 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No fees

MISSOURI

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, ST. LOUIS
Extension Division—Women's Programs
8001 Natural Bridge Road
St. Louis, Missouri 63121
(314) 453-5961
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, limited job referral
No registration fee. Other fees vary

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY
Continuing Education for Women
Box 1099
St. Louis, Missouri 63130
(314) 863-0100, ext. 4261
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

THE WOMEN'S RESOURCE SERVICE
University of Missouri, Kansas City
1020 East 63rd Street
Kansas City, Missouri 64110
(816) 276-1472
Tuesday-Thursday, 10:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, job referral, continuing education courses
No fees

NEW JERSEY

BERGEN COMMUNITY COLLEGE
Community Counseling Service
295 Main Street
Hackensack, N.J. 07601
(201) 447-1500
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses.
No fees

DOUGLASS COLLEGE
Women's Center
Gate House
New Brunswick, N.J. 08903
(201) 247-1766 Ext. 1603
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 12 noon
1:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m.
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No fees

EDUCATIONAL & VOCATIONAL
COUNSELING SERVICE
97 Mountainview Road
Millburn, N.J. 07041
(201) 376-5226
Saturday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Other days by appointment
Independent private agency
Educational and career counseling
No registration fee. Counseling fee

EVE
Kean College of New Jersey
Union, N.J. 07083
(201) 527-2210
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
College sponsored
Educational and career counseling, job referral
No registration fee. Other fees vary

JEWISH VOCATIONAL SERVICE
454 Williams Street
East Orange, N.J. 07017
(201) 674-6330
Five days, thirty-seven hours
Independent, non-profit office
Educational and career counseling, job referral and placement
Fees vary

NEW JERSEY (cont.)

The PROFESSIONAL ROSTER
83 Prospect Avenue
Princeton, N.J. 08540
(609) 921-9561
Monday-Friday, 10:00 a.m. to 12:30 p.m.
Independent, non-profit organization
Educational and career counseling, job referral
No fees

NEW YORK

BARNARD COLLEGE
Placement and Career Planning Office
606 West 120th Street
New York, N.Y. 10027
(212) 280-2033
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office. Restricted to alumnae
Career counseling, job referral, placement.
Registration fee

FEDERATION EMPLOYMENT
& GUIDANCE SERVICE
215 Park Avenue South
New York, N.Y. 10003
(212) 777-4900
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, job referral, placement
No registration fee. Other fees vary

HOFSTRA UNIVERSITY
Institute for Community Education
Hempstead, N.Y. 11550
(516) 560-3511
Monday-Thursday, 9:00 a.m. to 8:30 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

HUMAN RELATIONS WORK-STUDY CENTER
New School for Social Research
66 West 12th Street
New York, New York 10011
(212) 675-2700, Ext. 348-9
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

HUNTER COLLEGE
Career Counseling and Placement
Room 1601, 505 Park Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022
(212) 360-2874
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office. Restricted to alumnae
Career counseling, job referral, placement
No fees

MERCY COLLEGE
Career Counseling & Placement Office
555 Broadway
Dobbs Ferry, N.Y. 10522
(914) 693-4500
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Career counseling, job referral
No fees

NEW DIRECTIONS DIVISION
Pace University
Bedford Rd., Pleasantville, N.Y. 10570
(914) 769-3200 Ext. 211
Pace College Plaza, N.Y.C. 10038
(212) 285-3000, Ext. 3688
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored offices
Educational counseling
No fees

NEW YORK (cont.)

OPTIONS: CAREER WORKSHOPS FOR WOMEN
(Janice LaRouche, Founder)
333 Central Park West
New York, N.Y. 10025
(212) MO 3-3970
Monday-Saturday, 9:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.
Independent private agency
Career counseling
No registration fee. Other fees vary

ORANGE COUNTY COMMUNITY COLLEGE
Women's Program
Office of Community Services
115 South Street
Middletown, N.Y. 10940
(914) 343-3311
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

PROFESSIONAL SKILLS ROSTER
410 College Avenue
Ithaca, New York 14850
(607) 256-3758
Monday-Friday, 9:30 a.m. to 12:30 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Job referral, limited educational and career counseling
No fees. Suggested donation.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY/UNIVERSITY COLLEGE
Women's Center for Continuing Education
610 East Fayette Street
Syracuse, N.Y. 13202
(315) 423-3294
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No fees

VASSAR COLLEGE
Office of Career Planning
Poughkeepsie, N.Y. 12601
(914) 452-7000
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office. Restricted to alumnae.
Educational and career counseling, job referral, placement
No fees

NORTH CAROLINA

DUKE UNIVERSITY
Center for Career Development and Continuing Education
Durham, N.C. 27708
(919) 684-6259
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No registration fee. Other fees vary

SALEM COLLEGE
Lifespan Counseling Center for Women
Lehman Hall, Box 10548, Salem Station
Winston-Salem, N.C. 27108
(919) 723-7961
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, limited job referral
No registration fee. Other fees vary.

OHIO

CLEVELAND JEWISH VOCATIONAL SERVICE
13878 Cedar Road
University Heights, Ohio 44118
(216) 321-1381
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:30 p.m.
Thursday, 9:00 a.m. to 6:40 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, job referral, placement
No registration fee. Other fees vary.

PROJECT EVE
Cuyahoga Community College
2900 Community College Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio 44115
(216) 241-5966
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Community service. College sponsored office.
Individual educational and career counseling, no fee. Group series and programs, fees vary.

UNIVERSITY OF AKRON
1) Office of Student Services
   Akron, Ohio 44325
   (216) 375-7425
   Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
2) Evening College
   Akron, Ohio 44325
   (216) 375-7791
   Monday-Thursday, 8:00 a.m. to 9:00 p.m.
   Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
   Saturday, 8:00 a.m. to 1:00 p.m.
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, job referral, placement.
No registration fee.

OREGON

WOMEN'S PROGRAMS, DIVISION OF CONTINUING EDUCATION
Oregon State System of Higher Education
1633 S.W. Park Avenue
(mail) Box 1491
Portland, Oregon 97207
(503) 229-4849
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses
No registration fee. Other fees vary.

PENNSYLVANIA

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE
Office of Career Planning & Placement
Bryn Mawr, Pa. 19010
(215) LA 5-1000, Ext. 397
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling
Job referral and placement
No fees.

CEDAR CREST COLLEGE
Career Planning Office
Allentown, Pa. 18104
(215) 437-4471
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, continuing education courses, job referral and placement
No fees.

PENNSYLVANIA (cont.)

INSTITUTE OF AWARENESS
401 South Broad Street
Philadelphia, Pa. 19147
(215) KI 5-4400
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, special workshops, training programs
Fees vary

JOB ADVISORY SERVICE
Chatham College
Pittsburgh, Pa. 15232
(412) 441-8200, Ext. 256
Mon., Tues., Thurs. 10:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit office
Job referral
No fees

OPTIONS FOR WOMEN
8419 Germantown Avenue
Philadelphia, Pa. 19118
(215) CH 2-4955
Monday-Friday, 9:30 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, job placement
No registration fee. Other fees vary

ROBERT MORRIS COLLEGE
Department of Continuing Education
610 Fifth Avenue
Pittsburgh, Pa. 15219
(412) 471-3920
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational counseling, continuing education courses
Fees vary

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE
Office of Career Counseling & Placement
Swarthmore, Pa. 19081
(215) KI 4-7900
Monday-Thursday, 9:30 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.
Official college office. Restricted to alumnae.
Educational and career counseling, job referral, placement
No fees

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY
Career Services/Continuing Education for Women
Philadelphia, Pa. 19122
Monday-Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
College sponsored offices
(215) 787-7981 - Career Services
   Career counseling and job referral
   No counseling fee. $10.00 per year
   for [illegible]
(215) 787-7602 - Continuing Education
   Educational counseling, continuing education courses
   No registration fee

VILLA MARIA COLLEGE
Career Counseling Center For Adult Women
2551 West Lake Road
Erie, Pa. 16505
(814) 838-1966
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, job referral, placement, adult education courses
No fees

Chart 52 (continued)

TEXAS

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN
Continuing Education of Women and Men
Office of the Dean of Students
Austin, Texas 78712
(512) 471-1201
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College sponsored office
Educational and career counseling
No fees

WOMEN FOR CHANGE CENTER
2001 Bryan Tower, Suite 290
Dallas, Texas 75201
(214) 741-2391
Monday-Friday, 9:30 a.m. to 3:30 p.m.
Independent non-profit agency
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, job referral
Fees vary

VIRGINIA

MARY BALDWIN COLLEGE
Career & Personal Counseling Center
Staunton, Virginia 24401
(703) 885-0811, Ext. 323 or 294
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 1:00 p.m.
2:00 p.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College affiliated office
Educational and career counseling
Fees vary

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA
Office of Career Planning & Placement
5 Minor Hall
Charlottesville, Va. 22903
(703) 924-3378
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, limited job referral and placement
No fees

WASHINGTON

INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT CENTER, INC
(I.D. CENTER)
310 15th East
Seattle, Washington 98112
(206) 329-0600
Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.
Independent private agency
Life planning, career counseling, adult education courses, job referral
No registration fee. Other fees vary

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON
Women's Guidance Center
1209 N.E. 41st
Seattle, Washington 98195
(206) 543-2100
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, limited job referral
Registration fee. Other fees vary

WISCONSIN

PART-TIME PROFESSIONALS
Office of Adult Education
University of Wisconsin
Green Bay, Wisconsin 54302
(414) 465-2102
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
College and community sponsored
Educational and career counseling, adult education courses, job referral, placement
Fees vary

WYOMING

UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING
Placement Service
P.O. Box 3195, University Station
Laramie, Wyoming 82071
(307) 766-2398
Monday-Friday, 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.
Official college office, restricted to students and alumnae
Educational and career counseling, job referral.
No fees

Films

Sometimes presentation of a film can be a particularly powerful means of communicating in a counseling situation, especially where a group of women or girls may be involved. Some of the films currently available which may be used for this purpose include the following:

Films on Women's Changing Roles

Hard hats . . . High heels. Washington, D.C.: National Association of Women in Construction (NAWIC), 1972. (10 minute film)

Never underestimate the power of a woman. See Women in Wisconsin Apprenticeships by Norma Briggs, 1972. (film on the skilled trades, available from Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, University of Wisconsin, 1327 University Avenue, Madison, Wisconsin 53706. Price: $6.50 rental; $250.00 purchase [17 minute film])

Miss, Ms. or Mrs. - Mystery: The present and future status of women. 315 Central Park West, New York, New York 10025: Learning Information, Inc. (15 minute film. Cost: $95.00 in 1974)

The role of women in American society. (30 minute film) Presents the social and political history of women in the United States.

Assertiveness training for women: A stimulus film, APGA, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009 (1974).

The Women's Prejudice Film. A 20-minute film debarking social myths about women, produced by Sandler Institute Films, Inc.

Girls at 12. New Day Films, c/o Joyce Chopra, 11 Highland St., Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138.

Fifty-one percent. A color film for management about women who work. Attempts to create a positive climate for women in business. The film is available from Robert Drucker & Co., 1111 N. Las Palmas Ave., Hollywood, CA 90038 (Tel: 213-467-1101).

A chance to choose is a filmstrip produced by the American Personnel and Guidance Association's Project Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunities. It is intended for use in counselor training workshops and is available from the state representatives listed on page 275 of this chapter.

The Emerging Woman (1974) Presents the social and political history of women in the U.S. (30 minutes) available from Radim Films, Inc., 17 West 60th St., New York, N.Y. 10023.

Joyce at 34 (1974) An autobiography of a married professional woman having her first baby. Available from New Day Films, c/o Joyce Chopra, 11 Highland St., Cambridge, Mass. 01238.

Miscellaneous

This section contains the following: (1) descriptions of three particular resources for counselor training; (2) a resources list for counselor training in sex-free counseling; and (3) a listing of project titles and principal investigators for several NIE-funded studies underway when this Sourcebook was prepared.

Training Packages

1. COUNSELING WOMEN -- A WORKSHOP TO EXPAND WOMEN'S OPTIONS BY EXPANDING PSYCHOLOGISTS' SKILLS -- Janice M. Birk, Nancy K. Schlossberg and Patricia Jakubowski-Spector. As women mobilize themselves on campuses and communities, they are soliciting psycholigists for input into training, counseling activities, and program development. So that psychologists can respond optimally to women's needs and concerns, a two day workshop has been designed to provide cognitive understandings we well as skills for effective therapeutic intervention. Areas included within the workshop will be rape counseling, abortion counseling, women's groups, stereotyping and career options, and assertive training. Participants will be active in the sessions via demonstrations, behavior rehearsals, simulations and modeling exercises so as to maximize their involvement and promote skill development. Maximum number of participants: 25. Workshop fee: $45.

2. The American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) has developed a counselor training kit on Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunity (1974). The kit was developed to train 51 counselors representing each state in the U.S. in sex fair guidance attitudes and practices, who in turn will train counselors in their respective states. A list of the 51 counselors follows. These counselors may be contacted, for your state, to obtain information on training and materials available. The training kit includes a list of helpful materials for the counselor.

3. American Institutes for Research (AIR), in Palo Alto, California (94302) is developing a catalogue of the 100 most promising approaches to counseling women on their career planning and development needs. This project is supported by the U.S. Office of Education and the Santa Clara County, Metropolitan Adult Education Program. Contact AIR for publication dates and copies of this catalogue.

Resource List for Counselor Training in Sex Free Counseling

State Trainers for the SEGO Project (contacts for elementary and secondary school counselors)

ALABAMA	Ms. Mary Jo Craddock, 711 11th Street, Apt. E, Tuscaloosa 35401 205 345-0819
ALASKA	Ms. Susan B. Merritt, 2916 Knik Avenue, Anchorage 99503 907 272-6938
ARIZONA	Ms. Jamie Trainer, 1216 S. Camino Seco, Tucson 85710 602 885-7118
ARKANSAS	Mrs. Mary Barham, Counselor, Chaffin Jr. High, Ft. Smith Public Schools, 3514 Country Club, Ft. Smith 72901 501 452-2226
CALIFORNIA	Ms. Kay Ragan, Mt. San Antonio College, 1100 N. Grand Avenue, Walnut 91789 213 331-7139
COLORADO	Ms. Nancy Scott, Colorado Women's College, Montview Blvd and Quebec, Denver 80220 303 394-6980
CONNECTICUT	Dr. Marguerite Hall Pencel, University of Hartford, 200 Bloomfield, West Hartford 06117 203 243-4483
DELAWARE	Dr. Richard A. Edwards, 116 Hullihen Hall, University of Delaware, Newark 19711 302 738-1219
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	Ms. Angie King Corley, 3519 14th Street, N.E., Washington, D.C. 20017 202 529-7431
FLORIDA	Ms. Coleen Story, College of Education, University of South Florida, Tampa 33620 813 974-2100 x 376, 233
GEORGIA	Dr. Kathleen D. Crouch, Georgia State University, University Plaza, Atlanta 30303 404 658-3016
HAWAII	Dr. Richard White, Kamehameha Schools, Kapalama Heights, Honolulu 96817 808 841-8211 x 570
IDAHO	Ms. Leila Lewis, Consultant, Pupil Personnel, State Department of Education, Boise 83720 208 384-2282
ILLINOIS	Ms. Barbara Yocum, Moraine Valley Community College, 10900 South 88th Avenue, Palos Hills 60465 312 974-4300 x 267, 266
INDIANA	Dr. Marianne H. Mitchell, Department of Counseling and Guidance, School of Education, Indiana University, 2805 East Tenth Street, Rm 180, Bloomington 47401 812 337-9118 or 9010
IOWA	Dr. Lauralee Ehrerman, Division of Counselor Education, N 114, East Hall, University of Iowa, Iowa City 52240 319 353-1370
KANSAS	Dr. Margery A. Neely, Holton Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan 66505 913 532-5938
KENTUCKY	Ms. Angela Wilkins, Kentucky Division of Guidance, Capital Plaza Tower, Rm 1731, Frankfort 40601 502 564-3678
LOUISIANA	Dr. Laurabeth Hicks, Counselor Education, Southern University, Baton Rouge 504 771-2890
MAINE	Ms. Barbara K. Spath, Counseling & Testing Services, University of Maine at Fort Kent, Pleasant Street, Fort Kent 04743 207 834-3162
MARYLAND	Mrs. Brady J. Fletcher, One Waterway Court, Rockville 20855 301 460-3956
MASSACHUSETTS	Ms. Mary Dunnington Mitchell, 223 Old Beaverbrook Road, Village of Nagog Woods, Acton 01718 617 263-9731
MICHIGAN	Ms. Celess McLester, Box 420, Michigan Department of Education, Lansing 48902 517 373-1434
MINNESOTA	Ms. Arlene Breckenridge, 3820 Adair Avenue North, Crystal 55422 612 537-0302
MISSISSIPPI	Ms. Gayle Roberts, Mississippi State University, Counseling Center, Drawer NL, Mississippi State 39762 601 325-5502
MISSOURI	Dr. Queen D. Fowler, Washington University, Box 1085, St. Louis 63130 314 863-0100 x 4634, 4215
MONTANA	Ms. Carolyn Jennings, Center for Student Development, University of Montana, Missoula 59801 406 243-4711
NEBRASKA	Mr. Roger Hudson, 233 South Tenth, Lincoln 402 435-0993
NEVADA	Ms. Beverly Eagan, 115 Smithridge, Reno 89502 825-739
NEW HAMPSHIRE	Ms. Ruth Namzoff Berman, 57 Raymond Street, Nashua 03060 1-889-2800
NEW JERSEY	Ms. Donna J. Cubit-Swoyer, 71 Main Street, Woodbridge 07095 201 636-0348
NEW MEXICO	Ms. Carmen J. Langston, Route 5, Box 228A, Santa Fe 87501 505 455-7472
NEW YORK	Dr. Judy Egelston, 1362 West Lake Road, Conesus 14435 716 243-2455
NORTH CAROLINA	Ms. Cynthia Terres, #7 Pinehurst, Eagle Road, Belmont 28012 704 825-9567
NORTH DAKOTA	Ms. Diana Pace, Counseling Center, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks 58201 701 772-3325
OHIO	Dr. Lewis E. Patterson, 3598 Atherstone Road, Cleveland Heights 44121 216 382-6520
OKLAHOMA	Dr. Amour J. Andrews, Counseling Center, University of Oklahoma, 650 Parrington Oval, Norman 73069 405 325-2911
OREGON	Ms. Pat Moore, 768 State Street, Salem 97301 503 363-9169
PENNSYLVANIA	Dr. Judith Scott, University of Pittsburgh, 207 Hill Bldg. Pittsburgh 15260 412 624-4067
RHODE ISLAND	Mrs. Maxine V. S. Nichols, Whale Rock Road, Narragansett 02882 401 783-4113
SOUTH CAROLINA	Dr. Linda Brooks, Counseling Bureau, University of South Carolina, Columbia 29208 803 777-5223
SOUTH DAKOTA	Dr. Linda Reisser, Division of Student Services, South Dakota State University, Brookings 57006 605 688-4121
TENNESSEE	Mrs. Ruth S. Benn, c/o West High School, 3300 Sotherland Avenue, Knoxville 37919 584-3345
TEXAS	Dr. [illegible] Werner, East Texas State University, Box 5518, Texarkana 75501 214 838-0507
UTAH	Ms. Kaye M. Coloman, Women's Resource Center, University of Utah, Salt Lake City 84112 801 581-8030
VERMONT	Ms. Joyce Slayton Mitchell, Wolcott 05680 802 888-4652
VIRGINIA	Ms. Joan F. Walker, John Tyler Community College, Chester 23834 804 748-6481
WASHINGTON	Ms. Georgie Kunkel, 3409 S.W. Trenton, Seattle 98126 206 935-8663
WEST VIRGINIA	Mr. William Mullett, 203 Branchfield Drive, Charleston 26062 304 342-3779
WISCONSIN	Ms. Joan Daniels-Pedro, 5917 Old Middleton Road, Madison 53705 608 238-0756
WYOMING	Ms. Lynn Parker, Counselor-Instructor, Laramie County Community College, 1400 East College Drive, Cheyenne 82001 307 634-5853

List developed by the American Personnel and Guidance Association Project on Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunities (Washington, D.C.)

Research in Progress

1. Sex as a Factor Influencing Career Recommendations of Public School Guidance Counselors

   David Klemmack
   Department of Sociology
   Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
   Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

2. The Impact of Educational Attainment on Fertility and Female Labor Force Behavior

   T. Paul Schultz
   Department of Economics
   1035 Business Administration Building
   University of Minnesota
   Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

3. The Role of Women in American Society

   Adeline Naiman
   Education Development Center
   Newton, Massachusetts 02160

4. The Impact of Colleges and Universities on Educational and Occupational Aspirations of Women

   Michelle Patterson
   Department of Sociology
   University of California, Santa Barbara
   Santa Barbara, California 93106

5. Learning Kit for Guidance Counselors and Counselor Educators to Aid in the Delivery of Sex Fair Counseling

   Patricia Cook
   Abt Associates, Inc.
   55 Wheeler Street
   Cambridge, Mass. 02138

6. Workshop on "Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories"

   Lawrence Johnson and Associates
   Washington, D.C.

7. Report on Conference on Freeing Sex Roles for New Careers

Janice Birk
Counseling Center
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland 20742

8. Evaluating the Returns to the Education of Women

Janice Madden
University of Pennsylvania
34th and Walnut
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19147

9. Effects of Social Class Backgrounds on the Career Commitment of Women Attending Non-Elite Colleges

Mary J. Guttmacher
2130 Stillman Road
Cleveland Heights
Cleveland, Ohio 44118

10. Education, Expectancies and Employment of Women and Minorities

Patricia Gurin
Institute for Social Research
University of Michigan
426 Thompson Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

11. Performance Consequences of Sex Bias in the Content of Major Achievement Test Batteries

Thomas F. Donlon
Educational Testing Service
Rosedale Road
Princeton, New Jersey 08540

12. Simulated Occupational Choice: A Criterion of Competence in Career Decision-Making

Martin Katz
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, New Jersey 08540

13. Career Decision Making

Dave Winefordner
Applachia Educational Laboratory
P.O. Box 1348
Charleston, West Virginia 25325

14. Making a Choice: Understanding Career Decision Making

Anita Mitchell
American Institutes for Research
P.O. Box 1113
Palo Alto, California 94302

15. Development of Career Choice by Boys and Girls

Rosalind C. Barnett
21 Partridge Hill Road
Weston, Massachusetts 02193

16. Home/Community Based Model (of Career Education)

Vivian Guilfoy
Education Development Center, Inc.,
55 Chapel St.,
Newton, Massachusetts 02158

REFERENCES[*]

Alberti, R. E., & Emmons, M. L. Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior. San Luis Obispo, Calif: Impact, 1974.

American College Testing Program. American College Testing Interest Inventory. Iowa City: Author, 1974.

American Psychological Association. Standards for educational and psychological tests. Washington, D.C.: Author, 1974.

Anastasi, A. Psychological testing. New York: Macmillan, 1968.

Association of American Colleges. On Campus with Women, June, 1974.

Astin, H. S. Factors associated with the participation of women doctorates in the labor force. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 46, 240-246.

Astin, H. S. Preparing women for careers in science and technology. Paper presented at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Workshop on Women in Science and Technology, Boston, May, 1973.

Astin, H. S., & Bayer, A. E. Sex discrimination in academe. Educational Record, 1972, 53, 101-118.

Astin, H. S., & Bisconti, A. S. Career plans of college graduates of 1965 and 1970 (Report No. 2). Bethlehem, Pa.: The CDC Foundation, 1973.

Astin, H. S., & Myint, T. Career development of young women during the post-high school years. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1971, 18, 369-393.

Astin, H. S., Parelman, A., & Fisher, A. Sex roles: An annotated research bibliography. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, in press.

Bandura, A. Principles of behavior modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969.

Bardwick, J. M. Androgyny and humanistic goals, or goodbye cardboard people. In M L. McBee & K. A. Blake (Eds.), The American woman: Who will she be? New York: Macmillan, 1974.

Bates, J. Formative evaluation in the development of a counseling mode designed to teach time management. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, UCLA, 1971.

---

[*] see note at end of reference list

Bayer, A. H., Toyer, J., & Webb, R. Four years after college entry (Vol. 8). Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1973.

Bem, S. L. Psychology looks at sex roles: Where have all the androgynous people gone? Paper presented at the UCLA Symposium on Women, Los Angeles, May, 1972.

Bernard, J. Marriage and family among Negroes. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966.

Berry, J., McCarthy, E., Bates, J., & Terrill, H. Guide for development of permanent and part-time employment opportunities for girls and women. Kansas City, Mo.: University of Missouri--Kansas City, 1969.

Bettelheim, B. The children of the dream. London: Macmillan, 1969.

Birk, J. M. Reducing sex bias--factors affecting the client's view of the use of career interest inventories. Report, Contract Nonr OE-C-72-5240, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C., March 1974.

Birk, J. M., Cooper, J., & Tanney, M. F. Racial and sex role stereotyping in career information illustration. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Montreal, August, 1973.

Birk, J. M., & Tanney, M. F. Career exploration for high school women: A model. Paper presented at the American Personnel & Guidance Association Regional Convention, Atlanta, May, 1973.

Blitz, R. C. Women in the professions, 1870-1970. Monthly Labor Review, 1974, 97, 34-39.

Block, J. Back in circulation. New York: Macmillan, 1969.

Bloom, G. E., Waite, R. R., Zimet, S. G., & Edge, S. What the story world is like. In S. G. Zimet (Ed.), What children read in school. New York: Brune & Stratton, 1972.

Bock, E. W. Farmer's daughter effect: The case of Negro female professionals. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional woman. Cambridge, Mass.: Schenkman, 1971.

Bolles, R. N. What color is your parachute? A practical manual for job-hunters and career changers. Berkeley: Ten Speed Press, 1972.

Briggs, N. Women in apprenticeship: Why not? Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

Broverman, I. K., et al. Sex-role stereotypes: A current appraisal. *Journal of Social Issues*, 1972, *28*, 59-78.

Bunting, M. The Radcliffe Institute for Independent Study. *Educational Record*, 1961, *42*.

Burnett, F. *A survey of the use of career interest inventories in schools and related agencies*. Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1974.

Calderone, M. S. New roles for women. *The University of Chicago School Review*, 1972, *80*.

Caldwell, B. M., & Richmond, J. B. The children's center in Syracuse, New York. In L. L. Dittman (Ed.), *Early childcare: The new perspective*. New York: Atherton Press, 1968.

California State Department of Education. *Career Development: A California model for career guidance curriculum K-Adult*. Fullerton, Calif.: California Personnel and Guidance Association, 1973.

Campbell, D. P. Women deserve better. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1973, *51*.

Campbell, D. P. *Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1974.

Campbell, D. P. *SVIB-SCII manual*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1974.

Career Education Project. *Report on fifty selected centers offering career counseling services for women*. Providence, R.I.: Education Development Center, 1974.

Carter, M. W. State labor legislation of special interest to women. In the Council of State Goverments (Ed.), *The book of the states, 1972-73*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

Center for Continuing Education and Community Studies. *Work in progress: Third report*. Bronxville, N.Y.: Sarah Lawrence College, 1967.

Chapman, W. *SIGI counselor's handbook*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1973.

Child, I., Potter, E. H., & Levine, E. L. Children's textbooks and personality development: An explanation in the social psychology of education. *Psychological Monographs*, 1946, *60*.

Chittick, E. L. Questions and answers most frequently asked about the Equal Rights Amendment. *Women Lawyers Journal*, 1973, *59*, 11-14.

Citizen's Advisory Council on the Status of Women. Women. 1973.

Citizen's Advisory Council on the Status of Women. Women. 1974.

Clark, K., & Campbell, D. Manual: The Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1965.

Cole, N. S. On measuring the vocational interests of women. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1973, 20, 105-112.

Commission on the Status of Women. Participation of women in the economic and social development of their countries. New York: United Nations, 1970.

The Counseling Psychologist, 1969, 1.

Crites, J. Career Maturity Inventory. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.

Cronbach, J. J. Evaluation for course improvement. Teachers College Record, 1963, 64.

Cross, K. P. The education of women today and tomorrow. In M. L. McBee & K. A. Blake (Eds.), The American woman: Who will she be? New York: Macmillan, 1974.

Dalrymple, J., et al. Preparation for a dual role: Homemaker-wage earner with adaptations to inner city youth. Washington, D.C.: Educational Resources Information Center, 1970. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 045 863)

Darling, M. The role of women in the economy: Meetings of experts--Washington, D.C. Unpublished manuscript, 1973. (Available from Career Education Program, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C.)

Day, D. R., & Stogdill, R. M. Leader behavior of male and female supervisors: A comparative study. Personnel Psychology, 1972, 25, 353-360.

Deutsch, M. Guidelines for testing minority group children. Journal of Social Issues, 1964, 20.

Diamond, E. (Ed.) Issues of sex bias in interest measurement. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, in press.

Dolliver, R. H. Strong Vocational Interest Blank versus expressed vocational interests: A review. Psychological Bulletin, 72, 95-107.

Drew, D., & Patterson, M. Noah's ark in the frog pond: The educational aspirations of male and female undergraduates. Unpublished manuscript, 1974. (Available from the authors, National Research Council, Washington, D.C.)

Droege, R. C. Sex differences in aptitude maturation during high school. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1967, 14.

Durkin, J. J. The potential of women (Research Bulletin 87). Washington, D.C.: Johnson O'Connor Research Foundation, 1972.

Economic report of the President to the Congress. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

Edwards, A. E. Edwards Personal Preference Schedule--Manual. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1959.

Encyclopedia of careers and vocational guidance (Vols. 1 & 2). Chicago: Ferguson, 1972.

Epstein, C. F. Positive effects of the multiple negative: Explaining the success of black professional women. American Journal of Sociology, 1973, 78, 912-935.

Farmer, H. S. Helping women to resolve the home-career conflict. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1971, 49, 795-801.

Farmer, H. S. Guided inquiry group career counseling. Unpublished manuscript, 1973. (Available from the author, College of Education, Universtiy of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61803)

Farmer, M. (Ed.) Student personnel services for adults in higher education. Metuchen, N.J: The Scarecrow Press, 1967.

Festinger, L. A theory of cognitive dissonance. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, 1957.

Fitzgerald, L. E. Legal issues: Status report. Report, Contract Nonr OE-C-72-5240, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C., February 1974.

Friedan, B. The feminine mystique. New York: W. W. Norton, 1963.

Friedersdorf, N. A comparative study of counselor attitudes toward the further educational and vocational plans of high school girls. Unpublished manuscript, Purdue University, 1969.

Fuchs, V. R. Women's earnings: Recent trends and long-run prospects. Monthly Labor Review, 1974, 97, 23-26.

Galenson, M. Women and work: An international comparison. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1973.

Garman, L. G., & Plant, W. T. Sex-role stereotypes and educators' descriptions of mature personality. Paper presented at the meeting of the Western Psychological Association, San Francisco, April 1974.

Ginsberg, E., et al. Life style of educated women. New York: New York: Columbia University Press, 1966.

Ginsberg, E., & Yohalem, A. M. (Eds.) Corporate lib: Women's challenge to management. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1973.

Glaser, E. M., & Taylor, S. Factors influencing the success of applied research. American Psychologist, 1973, 28, 140-146.

Goldman, L. Using tests in counseling. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1972.

Goodwin, L. Welfare mothers and the work ethic. Monthly Labor Review, 1972, 95, 35-37.

Gottfredson, G. D. A note on sexist working in interest measurement. Unpublished manuscript, 1974. (Available from John Holland, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland)

Gottfredson, G. D., & Holland, J. Vocational choices of men and women: A comparison of predictors from the SDS (Report No. 175). Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University, 1974.

Guilford, J. P., Christensen, P. R., Bond, N. A., & Sutton, M. A. A factor analysis study of human interests. Psychological Monographs, 1954, 68.

Gump, J. P., & Rivers, L. W. The consideration of race in efforts to end sex bias. Report, Contract Nonr OE-C-72-5240, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C., 1974.

Hahn, M. E. Planning ahead after forty. Los Angeles: Western Psychological Services, 1967.

Harford, T. C., Willis, C. H., & Deabler, H. L. Personality correlates of masculinity-femininity. Psychological Reports, 1967, 21.

Harmon, L. W. Women's interests: Fact or fiction? Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 45.

Harmon, L. W. Variables related to women's persistence in educational plans. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1972, 2, 143-153.

Harmon, L. W. Technical aspects: Problems of scale development, norms, item differences by sex, and the rate of change in occupational group characteristics. Report, Contract Nonr OE-C-52-7240, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C., 1974.

Harmon, L. W. Career counseling for women. In D. Carter & E. Rawlings (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality. Springfield, Ill.: Charles Thomas & Sons, 1975.

Harris, A. S. Second sex in academe. AAUP Bulletin, 1970, 56.

Harris, J. The computer: Guidance tool of the future. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1974, 21.

Havelock, R. G. The change agent's guide to innovation in education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1973.

Hawley, P. Perceptions of male models of femininity related to career choice. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1972, 19.

Healy, C. Career counseling in the community college. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1974.

Hedges, J. N. Women at work: Women workers and manpower demands in the 1970s. Monthly Labor Review, 1970, 93.

Hedges, J. N., & Barnett, J. K. Working women and the division of household tasks. Monthly Labor Review, 1972, 95, 9-14.

Hedges, J. N., & Bemis, S. E. Sex stereotyping: Its decline in skilled trades. Monthly Labor Review, 1974, 97, 4-22.

Hoffman, L. Mother's enjoyment of work and effects on the child. In F. Nye & L. Hoffman (Eds.), The employed mother in America. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1963.

Hoffman, L., & Nye, I. F. Working mothers. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974.

Holland, J. Self-Directed-Search. Palo Alto, Calif.: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1972.

Holland, J. Making vocational choices: A theory of careers. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Holland, J. Sex differences, sex biases, and interest inventories. Paper presented at the American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention, New Orleans, April 1974.

Hollingshead, A. B. Elmstown's youth. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1949.

Hoppock, R. Occupational information. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Horner, M. S. Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts in women. Journal of Social Issues, 1972, 28, 157-175.

Hoyt, K. *Career education, vocational education and occupational education: An approach to defining differences.* Columbus, Ohio: Center for Vocational and Technical Education, Ohio State University, 1974.

Hughes, R., et al. Preparation for a dual role. *Journal of Home Economics*, 1969, *61*.

Irvine, E. Children in kibbutzim: Thirteen years after. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 1966, *7*.

Isaacson, L. *Career information in counseling and teaching*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1971.

Jacklin, C., Heuner, M., Mischell, H. N., & Jacobs, C. As the twig is bent: Sex role stereotyping in early readers. Unpublished manuscript, 1972. (Available from the author. Stanford University, Department of Psychology, Stanford, California)

Jakubowski-Spector, P. Facilitating the growth of women through assertive training. *Counseling Psychologist*, 1973, *4*.

Jameson, R. *The professional job hunting system: World's fastest way to get a job*. New Jerse;: Performance Dynamics, 1970.

Jepson, D. A., & Dilley, J. S. Vocational decision-making models: A review and comparative analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 1974, *44*.

Johansson, C. B. *Technical aspects: Problems of scale development norms, item differences by sex, and the rate of change in occupational group characteristics*. Report, Contract Nonr OE-C-72-5240, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C., February, 1974.

Jones, G. B., Trimble, M. M., & Altmann, H. A. Improving college students' performance through group counseling. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 1970.

Kagan, J. The emergence of sex differences. *School Review*, 1972, 217-227.

Kahne, H. *Women in management: Strategy for increase*. Washington, D.C.: Business and Professional Women's Foundation, 1974.

Kaley, M. M. Attitudes toward the dual role of the married professional woman. *American Psychologist*, 1971, *26*, 301-306.

Katz, M. L. *Female motive to avoid success: A psychological barrier or a response to deviancy?* Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1973.

Kelley, H., & Thibaut, J. Group problem solving. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (Vol. 4). Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

Kievit, M. B. *Review and synthesis of research on women in the world of work*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.

Kirk, B. *Occupational information in counseling*. Palo Alto, Calif.: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1965.

Kohlberg, L. A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex-role concepts and attitudes. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), *The development of sex differences*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1966.

Kohlberg, L., & Turiel, E. *Moralization, the cognitive developmental approach*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1975.

Koontz, E. D. *Plans for widening women's educational opportunities*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.

Kroll, A. Computer-based system for career guidance and information: A status report. *Focus on Guidance*, March 1973.

Kromboltz, J. D., & Thoresen, D. E. *Behavioral counseling: Cases and techniques*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969.

Kuder, G. F. *Kuder Occupational Interest Survey* (Rev. ed.). Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1974.

Kuvlesky, W. P., & Obordo, A. S. A racial comparison of teen-age girls' projections for marriage and procreation. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 1972, *34*.

Lazarus, A. A. *Behavior therapy and beyond*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

Lee, P. C., & Gropper, N. B. Sex-role culture and educational practice. *Harvard Educational Review*, 1974, *44*.

Lewis, O. *La vida*. New York: Random House, 1966.

Lipman-Blumen, J. How ideology shapes women's lives. *Scientific American*, 1972, *226*.

Liveright, A. A., & Goldman, F. H. *Significant developments in continuing higher education*. (Occasional Paper No. 12). Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1965.

Loring, R., & Wells, T. *Breakthrough: Women into management*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1972.

Lyle, J. R. *Affirmative action programs for women: A survey of innovative programs*. Report, Contract No. 71-45, U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Washington, D.C., 1972.

Maccoby, E., & Jacklin, C. *The psychology of sex differences*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1974.

Mace, D. The employed mother in the USSR. *Marriage and Family Living*, 1961, *23*.

Manpower Administration. *Years for decision*. (Manpower Research Monograph No. 24, vols. 1 & 2). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

Marland, S. P. Foreword. In L. McClure & C. Vuan (Eds.), *Essays on career education*. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1973.

Mason, P. Employment, welfare, and mothers' motivations. *Manpower*, 1973, *5*, 28-32.

Matthews, E., & Tiedeman, D. V. Attitudes toward career and marriage and the development of life style in young women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1964, *11*.

McBee, M. L., & Blake, K. A. (Eds.). *The American woman: Who will she be*? New York: Macmillan, 1974.

McClure, L., & Vuan, C. (Eds.). *Essays on career education*. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Education Laboratory, 1973.

Mcgoon, T. Developing skills for solving educational and vocational problems, University of Maryland. In J. D. Kromboltz & C. Thoresen (Eds.), *Behavioral Counseling: Cases and techniques*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969.

Mead, M. Foreword. In M. L. McBee & K. A. Blake (Eds.), *The American woman: Who will she be*? New York: Macmillan, 1974.

Miller, D. C., & Form, W. H. *Industrial sociology*. New York: Harper & Row, 1951.

Miller-Tiedeman, A. Decision making in retrospect: A self-report activity. Unpublished manuscript, 1974. (Available from the author, University of Northern Illinois, DeKalb, Illinois)

Mindy, C. *The divorced mother: A guide to readjustment*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

Mitchell, J. S. *Other choices for becoming a woman*. Pittsburgh: KNOW, 1974.

Morgan, D. *Perception of role conflicts and self-concepts among career and non-career college educated women.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962.

Moynihan, D. *The Negro family: The case for national action.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

Mussen, P. H. Early sex-role development. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of socialization theory and research.* Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1969.

Myers, R. A., et al. *Educational and career exploration system: Report of a two-year field trial.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia Universtiy, 1972.

Naffziger, K. G. *A survey of counselor-educators' and other selected professionals' attitudes toward women's roles.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1972.

Nicol, H. G. Report on undergraduate counseling and continuing education and guidance for mature women. *Proceedings of the First Catalyst Campus Conference.* Pittsburgh: Carnegie Institute of Technology, 1964.

Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Summer 1974.

Office of Career Development and Placement. *Job search skills.* (3 booklets) Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1973.

Ohio Vocational Interest Survey. New York: Harcourt-Brace-Jovanovich, 1970.

Oppenheimer, V. K. The sex-labeling of jobs. *Industrial Relations*, 1968, *7*.

Oppenheimer, V. K. *The female labor force in the United States: Demographic and economic factors governing its growth and economic composition.* Berkeley, Calif.: Universtiy of California, 1970.

Osipow, S. *Theories of career development.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973.

Parrish, J. B. Women in professional training. *Monthly Labor Review*, 1974, *97*, 41-43.

Plost, M. Career media centers are shortchanging today's girls. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, in press.

Poloma, M. M., & Garland, T. N. *The dual profession family.* Washington, D.C.: Business and Professional Women's Foundation, 1971.

Popham, J. An evaluation guidebook. Los Angeles: The Instructional Objectives Exchange, 1972.

Potter, B. A. The shaping of woman. Unpublished manuscript, 1972. (Available from the author, Stanford University, Stanford, California)

Prediger, D. J., Roth, J. D., & Noeth, R. J. Nationwide study of student career development: Summary of results. Iowa City: American College Testing Program, 1973.

President's Commission on the Status of Women. American women. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

Psathas, G. Toward a theory of occupational choice for women. Sociology and Social Research, 1968, 52, 253-268.

Rabin, A. I. Growing up in the kibbutz. New York: Speinter, 1965.

Raphael, E. E. Working women and their membership in labor unions. Monthly Labor Review, 1974, 97, 27-33.

Rappaport, R., & Rappaport, R. The dual career family. Human Relations, 1969, 22.

Raushenbush, E. Unfinished business: Continuing education for women. Educational Record, 1961, 42.

Roby, P. Vocational education and women. Paper presented to the Committee on Vocational Education Research and Development of the Assembly of Behavioral and Social Sciences of the National Academy of Sciences, August, 1974.

Roe, A. The psychology of occupations. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1956.

Rosenberg, B., & Mendelsohn, E. Legal status of women. In Council of State Governments (Ed.), The book of the states, 1974-75. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

Saario, T. N., Jacklin, C. N., & Tittle, C. K. Sex role stereotyping in the public schools. Harvard Educational Review, 1973, 43, 386-416.

Sarbin, T. Role theory. In G. Lindzey (Ed.), Handbook of social psychology (Vol. 1). Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1954.

Schlossberg, N. K. A framework for counseling women. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1972, 51, 137-143.

Science Research Associates. Occupational briefs. Chicago: Author, 1973.

Scriven, M. The methodology of evaluation. In R. Stake (Ed.), Perspectives of curriculum evaluation. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967.

Sells, L. W. Sociologists for women in society: Current research on sex roles. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California, 1972.

Senders, V. L. The Minnesota Plan for women's continuing education: A progress report. Educational Record, 1961, 42.

Shapira, A., & Madsen, M. Cooperative and competitive behavior of kibbutz and urban children in Israel. Child Development, 1969, 40.

Siegel, C. L. F. Sex differences in the occupational choices of second graders. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1973, 3.

Skard, A. B. Maternal deprivation: The research and its implications. Journal of Marriage and Family, 1965, 27.

Skelsey, A. The working mother's guide to her home and her family. New York: Random House, 1970.

Solmon, L. C. Women in doctoral education: Clues and puzzles regarding institutional discrimination. Research in Higher Education, 1973, 1.

Solmon, L. C. Do women graduate students get a raw deal? Paper presented to the National Research Council, Montreal, March 1974.

Stevenson, M. Women's wages and job segregation. Politics and Society, 1973, 4, 83-96.

Strong, E. K. Vocational interests 18 years after college. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1955.

Super, D. The psychology of careers. New York: Harper & Row, 1957.

Super, D. Theory of vocational choice. The Counseling Psychologist, 1969, 1.

Super, D. (Ed.). Computer assisted counseling. New York: Teachers College Press, 1970.

Super, D. Career Development Inventory. Unpublished, 1974. (Available from the author, Columbia University, Teachers College, New York, New York 10027)

Super, D., et al. Career development: Self concept theory. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963.

Sweet, J. Women in the labor force. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1973.

Taylor, S. S. Educational leadership: A male domain? Phi Delta Kappan, 1973, 55, 124-128.

Terman, L. M., & Miles, C. C. Sex and personality: Studies in masculinity and femininity. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936.

Thomas, A. H., & Stewart, N. R. Counselor response to female clients with deviate and conforming career goals. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1971, 18.

Tiedeman, D., & O'Hara, R. Career development: Choice and adjustment. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963.

Tittle, C. K., McCarthy, K., & Steckler, J. F. Women and educational testing. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1974.

Tolbert, E. L. Counseling for career development. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1974.

Tomlinson-Keasey, C. Role variables: Their influence on female motivational constructs. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1974, 21, 232-237.

Tyler, L. The development of career interest in girls. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1964, 70.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. Census of population, 1970: Detailed characteristics. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970.

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office for Civil Rights. Availability data: Minorities and women. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Manual for determining the labor market availability of women and minorities. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor. Dictionary of occupational titles (Vol. 3). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

U.S. Department of Labor. Occupational outlook handbook: 1972-73 edition. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.

U.S. Department of Labor. Occupational outlook handbook: 1974-75 edition. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Continuing education programs for women (Pamphlet 10). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Careers for women in the 70's. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Day care facts (Pamphlet 16). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Why women work. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Facts on women workers of minority races. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Get credit for what you know (Leaflet 56). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Highlights of women's employment and education. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. The myth and the reality. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. State hours laws for women: Changes in status since the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Steps to advance equal employment opportunity for women. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Steps to opening the skilled trades to women. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Twenty facts on women workers. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

Vetter, L. Planning ahead for the world of work: Women's career patterns and their implications. American Vocational Journal, 1970, 45.

Vetter, L. Career counseling for women. The Counseling Psychologist, 1973, 4, 54-66.

Waldman, E., & McEaddy, B. J. Where women work--an analysis by industry and occupation. *Monthly Labor Review*, 1974, *97*, 3-13.

Wallston, B. The effects of maternal employment on children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 1973, *14*, 81-95.

Wells, J. *Continuing education for women: Current developments*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974.

Weston, P. J., & Mednick, M. T. Race, social class and motive to avoid success. In J. M. Bardwick (Ed.), *Readings on the psychology of women*. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.

White, R. The concept of healthy personality: What do we really mean? *The Counseling Psychologist*, 1969, *1*.

Wilensky, H. L. Women's work: Economic growth, ideology, structure. *Industrial Relations*, 1968, *7*.

Zimet, S. G. Little boy lost. *Teachers College Record*, 1970, *72*.

Zytowski, D. An inventory of interest and work value inventories. Unpublished manuscript, 1974. (Available from the author, Iowa State University, Department of Counseling Psychology, Ames, Iowa)

*NOTE: If you have difficulty locating certain citations in this reference list, the following two items of information may help. (1) There is some variance in the *Sourcebook* text as to how citations are made to publications of the Department of Labor's Women's Bureau. Sometimes these are listed as "Women's Bureau," sometimes as "Department of Labor," and sometimes as "U.S. Women's Bureau." All will be found under "U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau" here. (2) There are a few cases where an author has more than one citation for a given year (Women's Bureau is an example). These have not been subcategorized, i.e., "1974a, 1974b." However, exact titles should be easily identifiable by subject matter.

•APPENDICES•

Appendix titles were listed earlier in the Table of Contents to this volume. They are reproduced again here to indicate under which chapter a particular appendix falls.

•Chapter I

None

•Chapter II

A. Earned Bachelor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67
B. Earned Master's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67
C. Earned Doctor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67
D. Women in Experienced Civilian Labor Force, 1950, 1960 and 1970
E. Minority Group Employment by Occupation, Sex and State, 1970
F. Women Employed in the Skilled Trades, by detailed trade, 1960 and 1970

•Chapter III

None

•Chapter IV

G. Get Credit For What You Know
H. Farmer Case Studies
I. NIE Guidelines on Testing
J. Preparing a Work Resume

•Chapter V

K. Title VII
L. Executive Order 11246
M. Order No. 4
N. Recruiting Aids - for Affirmative Action
O. Equal Rights: Question and Answer
P. Sex Discrimination
Q. List of Court Actions

•Chapter VI

None

Appendix A

Earned Bachelor's Degrees[1] Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred
Total	562,369	238,133	100.0	42.3
Education	120,874	90,562	38.0	74.9
Art education	3,928	2,829	1.2	72.0
Business and commercial education	6,315	4,523	1.9	71.6
Early childhood, nursery, and kindergarten education	4,023	3,992	1.7	99.2
Education of exceptional children and the handicapped	1,999	1,698	.7	84.9
Elementary education	64,595	58,016	24.4	89.8
Home economics education	4,582	4,567	1.9	99.7
Music education	5,593	3,203	1.3	57.3
Physical education	13,473	4,946	2.1	36.7
Secondary education	2,852	1,532	.6	53.7
Speech and hearing education	2,378	2,004	.8	84.3
Other	11,136	3,252	1.4	29.2
Humanities and the arts	98,368	56,883	23.9	57.8
English, journalism	45,949	29,206	12.3	63.6
Fine and applied arts	21,553	12,569	5.3	58.3
Foreign languages, literature	17,025	12,184	5.1	71.6
Religion, philosophy	9,509	2,134	.9	22.4
Other	4,332	790	.3	18.2
Psychology	19,496	7,806	3.3	40.0
Social sciences	106,919	37,656	15.8	35.2
Social sciences	104,756	37,219	15.6	35.5
Anthropology	1,825	971	.4	53.2
Economics	13,058	1,331	.6	10.2
History	31,793	11,064	4.6	34.8
Political science, government	17,733	3,920	1.6	22.1
Social sciences (general)	14,744	6,487	2.7	44.0
Social work, administration, welfare	1,881	1,462	.6	77.7
Sociology	17,751	10,588	4.4	59.6
Other	5,971	1,396	.6	23.4
Geography	2,163	437	.2	20.2
Basic and applied sciences	130,974	31,301	13.1	23.9
Biological sciences	28,950	8,047	3.4	27.8
Health professions	16,123	12,437	5.2	77.1
Medical technology	2,261	2,019	.8	89.3
Nursing, public health nursing	8,334	8,252	3.5	99.0
Therapy (occupational and physical)	1,306	1,180	.5	90.4
Other health professions	4,222	986	.4	23.4
Mathematical subjects	21,308	7,310	3.1	34.3
Physical sciences	17,794	2,402	1.0	13.5
Other	46,799	1,105	.5	2.4
Other professional fields	85,738	13,925	5.8	16.2
Business and commerce	69,687	5,992	2.5	8.6
Home economics	6,335	6,166	2.6	97.3
Library science	701	647	.3	92.3
Other	9,015	1,120	.5	12.4

[1] Includes degrees requiring 4 or 5 years of education.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1966-67." OE-54013-67.

Appendix B

Earned Master's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all master's degrees conferred
Total	157,892	54,713	100.0	34.7
Education	55,861	27,918	51.0	50.0
Art education	721	404	.7	56.0
Business and commercial education	1,224	707	1.3	57.8
Counseling, guidance	7,001	3,276	6.0	46.8
Curriculum and instruction	1,117	699	1.3	62.6
Early childhood, nursery, and kindergarten education	395	389	.7	98.5
Educational administration, supervision, or finance	7,230	1,602	2.9	22.2
Educational psychology	634	280	.5	44.2
Education of exceptional children and the handicapped	2,295	1,584	2.9	69.0
Elementary education	10,040	8,055	14.7	80.2
Home economics education	509	504	.9	99.0
Music education	1,509	578	1.1	38.3
Physical education	3,052	852	1.6	27.9
Secondary education	4,305	1,809	3.3	42.0
Speech and hearing education	887	675	1.2	76.1
Other	14,942	6,504	11.9	43.5
Humanities and the arts	22,051	9,836	18.0	44.6
English, journalism	7,984	4,170	7.6	52.2
Fine and applied arts	5,812	2,476	4.5	42.6
Foreign languages, literature	4,255	2,379	4.3	55.9
Religion, philosophy	2,876	600	1.1	20.9
Other	1,124	211	.4	18.8
Psychology	3,138	1,062	1.9	33.8

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all master's degrees conferred
Social sciences	19,173	5,851	10.7	30.5
Social sciences	18,710	5,784	10.6	30.9
Anthropology	357	117	.2	32.8
Area and regional studies	419	125	.2	29.8
Economics	1,778	168	.3	9.4
History	4,621	1,317	2.4	28.5
Political science, government	1,775	387	.7	21.8
Social sciences (general)	1,688	462	.8	27.4
Social work, administration, welfare	4,220	2,533	4.6	60.0
Sociology	1,193	356	.7	29.8
Other	2,659	319	.6	12.0
Geography	463	67	.1	14.5
Basic and applied sciences	35,950	5,121	9.4	14.2
Biological sciences	5,003	1,282	2.3	25.6
Health professions	3,455	1,663	3.0	48.1
Nursing, public health nursing	1,145	1,120	2.0	97.8
Public health	865	294	.5	34.0
Other health professions	1,445	249	.5	17.2
Mathematical subjects	5,284	1,284	2.3	24.3
Physical sciences	5,412	553	1.0	10.2
Other	16,796	339	.6	2.0
Other professional fields	21,719	4,925	9.0	22.7
Business and commerce	14,894	406	.7	2.7
Home economics	850	804	1.5	94.6
Library science	4,489	3,567	6.5	79.5
Other	1,486	148	.3	10.0

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1966–67." OE–54013–67

Appendix C

Earned Doctor's Degrees Conferred on Women, by Selected Fields of Study, 1966-67

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all doctor's degrees conferred
Total	20,621	2,457	100.0	11.9
Education	3,529	722	29.4	20.5
Humanities and the arts	2,543	511	20.8	20.1
English and journalism	871	203	8.3	23.3
Fine and applied arts	504	93	3.8	18.5
Foreign languages, literature	578	163	6.6	28.2
Other	590	52	2.1	8.8
Psychology	1,231	232	9.4	18.8
Social sciences	2,586	310	12.6	12.0
Basic and applied sciences	10,096	605	24.6	6.0
Biological sciences	2,256	342	13.9	15.2
Mathematical subjects	832	59	2.4	7.1
Physical sciences	3,462	162	6.6	4.7
Other	3,546	42	1.7	1.2
Other professional fields	636	77	3.1	12.1

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education: "Earned Degrees, 1966-67." OE-54013-67.

Appendix D

Women in Experienced Civilian Labor Force, 1950, 1960, and 1970

(14 years of age and over)

Occupational group	Number of women (thousands)			Women as percent of all persons in occupation		
	1950	1960	1970	1950	1960	1970
TOTAL	16,481.9	22,303.7	30,601.0	28.1	32.8	38.0
Professional and technical workers	1,896.9	2,723.9	4,397.6	39.0	38.4	39.9
Accountants	57.0	81.9	187.0	14.9	16.5	26.2
Architects	.9	.8	2.0	3.8	2.1	3.6
Engineers	6.7	7.2	20.3	1.3	.8	1.6
Farm and home management advisers	5.0	6.4	6.5	46.1	47.2	49.7
Lawyers and judges	7.0	7.5	13.4	4.1	3.5	4.9
Librarians	50.7	64.6	101.5	88.8	85.4	82.0
Life and physical scientists	12.6	15.2	29.2	11.0	9.2	13.7
Personnel and labor relations workers	15.0	34.2	91.7	28.3	33.1	30.9
Pharmacists	7.4	7.2	13.3	8.7	7.5	12.0
Physicians, medical and osteopathic	12.3	16.2	26.1	6.7	6.9	9.3
Dietitians	21.7	24.8	37.8	96.5	92.7	92.0
Registered nurses	399.2	613.7	819.3	97.6	97.5	97.3
Therapists	(1)	16.4	48.5	(1)	63.4	63.5
Health technicians	46.3	88.0	184.1	57.4	68.2	69.7
Clergymen	7.3	4.7	6.3	4.4	2.3	2.9
Other religious workers	28.7	38.6	20.1	69.9	63.3	55.7
Social scientists	11.3	15.1	32.0	32.9	25.4	23.2
Social workers	54.0	59.4	138.9	69.3	62.8	62.8
Recreation workers	7.7	14.9	22.5	45.4	51.2	42.0
Teachers, elementary	(1)	851.2	1,199.4	(1)	85.8	83.7
Teachers, secondary	(1)	280.5	498.7	(1)	49.3	49.3
Teachers, college and university	27.8	46.5	140.4	22.4	23.9	28.6
Engineering and science technicians	(1)	43.5	68.7	(1)	11.1	12.9
Draftsmen	7.2	12.3	23.6	6.0	5.6	8.0
Radio operators	1.7	3.1	7.6	10.2	16.7	25.9
Authors	5.8	7.3	7.7	36.5	25.5	29.1
Dancers	(1)	3.9	5.7	(1)	86.0	81.3
Designers	10.7	13.4	27.2	26.7	19.3	24.2
Editors and reporters	29.4	39.0	61.5	32.1	36.6	40.6
Musicians and composers	(1)	29.8	33.5	(1)	38.6	34.8
Photographers	8.6	6.5	9.5	16.2	12.2	14.2
Other professional, technical, and kindred workers	(1)	270.1	513.9	(1)	33.9	32.9
Managers and administrators, except farm	680.8	844.5	1,034.3	13.7	14.8	16.6
Buyers, wholesale and retail trade	35.5	34.2	52.8	24.6	35.6	29.8
Credit men	6.6	12.0	17.0	19.2	25.1	28.3
Public administrators and postal inspectors	2.5	3.1	6.2	4.4	3.9	6.1
Managers and superintendents, building	22.9	20.0	34.0	34.2	43.6	40.2
Administrators, n.e.c., Federal	5.2	12.1	20.4	10.6	15.3	16.9
Administrators, n.e.c., State	2.1	4.8	6.5	9.5	12.8	13.4
Administrators, n.e.c., local	18.8	17.2	20.6	22.9	21.8	26.2
Officials of societies and unions	3.2	5.1	8.2	10.9	11.8	16.2
Postmasters and mail superintendents	17.3	15.0	11.3	44.9	39.3	31.8
Purchasing agents and buyers, n.e.c	6.2	10.3	22.5	9.5	9.2	13.7
Restaurant, cafeteria and bar managers	93.9	95.5	112.6	26.9	32.5	34.2
Other specified managers and administrators, except farm	(1)	72.4	223.4	(1)	14.9	18.4
Managers and administrators, n.e.c., salaried:						
Construction	2.0	5.0	8.0	2.2	3.4	3.1
Manufacturing	27.8	45.0	43.0	6.8	7.1	6.3
Transportation	4.2	10.8	17.6	4.4	8.7	12.3
Communication and utilities	5.7	11.3	13.3	9.7	11.0	11.8
Wholesale trade	8.3	14.3	18.9	5.4	7.0	7.4
Retail, hardware, etc.	1.4	2.3	2.7	3.3	4.3	5.1
Retail, general merchandise	13.6	23.6	25.4	23.2	26.2	24.6
Retail, foodstores	12.7	9.5	17.3	12.8	8.9	12.3
Retail, motor vehicles and accessories	2.4	3.9	5.7	4.3	4.4	5.4
Retail, apparel and accessories	14.1	17.0	19.9	33.5	33.5	34.2
Retail, furniture, etc.	3.1	3.4	5.3	11.2	10.7	12.1
Other retail trade	13.7	14.7	24.2	12.4	11.9	13.1
Finance, insurance and real estate	25.4	47.9	32.8	13.9	14.7	17.5
Business and repair services	6.1	16.1	19.8	10.8	10.8	14.0
Personal services	21.2	28.7	36.0	33.7	35.8	26.8
All other industries	39.6	64.5	64.0	25.3	27.8	26.8

(14 years of age and over)

Occupational group	Number of women (thousands)			Women as percent of all persons in occupation		
	1950	1960	1970	1950	1960	1970
Managers and administrators, n.e.c., self-employed:						
Construction	2.6	2.9	2.8	1.3	1.3	1.9
Manufacturing	15.2	11.8	6.0	6.5	6.9	9.1
Transportation	2.4	4.6	2.1	4.6	10.6	9.8
Wholesale trade	7.1	6.9	4.5	4.0	5.0	8.1
Retail, hardware, etc.	3.8	3.4	2.4	4.7	5.1	8.4
Retail, general merchandise	15.1	10.8	8.0	23.6	23.3	32.4
Retail, food	70.6	42.7	30.1	18.4	19.4	26.1
Retail, gas service stations	5.2	4.1	3.5	3.6	2.7	3.4
Retail, apparel and accessories stores	24.4	19.2	10.0	29.5	33.7	41.9
Retail, furniture, etc	4.9	4.5	3.7	7.3	9.2	13.6
Other retail trade	38.8	32.8	27.4	14.3	15.9	25.1
Finance, insurance and real estate	7.2	8.3	3.0	10.9	11.5	12.6
Business and repair services	7.4	8.1	6.2	6.0	8.4	11.9
Personal services	39.5	43.6	27.8	28.0	33.1	31.3
All other industries	14.7	21.3	7.4	14.2	20.3	22.1
Service workers	3,564.1	4,890.3	5,751.9	58.1	61.9	60.0
Cleaners and charwomen	75.3	167.7	266.1	60.5	41.7	56.6
Janitors and sextons	56.5	91.3	165.2	12.0	11.6	12.7
Bartenders	13.1	20.5	41.9	6.4	11.1	21.1
Cooks, except private household	257.1	385.4	550.5	55.2	63.9	62.1
Counter and fountain workers	47.4	119.4	126.3	50.9	70.9	75.0
Waiters and waitresses	579.8	780.0	1,002.4	81.8	86.8	89.0
Practical nurses	138.4	166.5	233.2	96.4	95.4	96.4
Other health services	232.0	445.0	847.4	72.6	73.4	86.2
Attendants, recreation and amusement	5.2	13.0	19.7	7.9	17.6	23.8
Attendants, personal service, n.e.c.	33.5	46.8	40.9	67.2	55.6	62.6
Boarding and lodging housekeepers	23.6	26.4	5.4	75.6	88.5	71.9
Elevator operators	27.0	24.9	10.2	29.1	32.5	27.6
Barbers, hairdressers, and cosmetologists	193.2	278.0	442.4	49.2	56.9	68.0
Housekeepers, except private household	85.8	51.0	76.6	77.2	73.6	71.8
Guards and watchmen	5.3	5.2	17.0	2.1	2.0	5.2
Policemen and detectives	3.9	7.0	13.5	2.0	2.7	3.6
Other protective service workers	2.1	14.2	28.7	1.5	7.1	11.0
Other service workers, except private household	345.2	496.8	761.5	45.4	68.8	66.0
Housekeepers, private household	147.4	149.0	101.5	97.6	95.5	96.2
Laundresses, private household	73.3	40.7	11.9	97.0	98.2	94.8
Other private household workers	1,219.1	1,561.9	989.7	94.5	96.5	96.6
Occupation not reported	447.6	1,297.7	2,147.1	35.2	37.8	41.5

[1] Data are not available because of changes in classification.
n.e.c.—not elsewhere classified.

Note: Occupational classifications in this table are not exactly comparable with Census classifications because of regrouping detailed occupations.

Detail for 1950 is not always strictly comparable with later years because of changes in classification.

The data are based on samples drawn from the decennial censuses. The sample sizes are: 1950, 3⅓ percent; 1960, 25 percent; 1970, 20 percent.

Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Sources: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, and Council of Economic Advisers.

Appendix E

Minority Group Employment by Occupation, Sex and State, 1970

U.S. EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY COMMISSION

	TOTAL EMPLOYMENT	WHITE COLLAR OCCUPATIONS						BLUE COLLAR OCCUPATIONS				SERVICE WORKERS
		TOTAL WHITE COLLAR EMPLOYMENT	OFFICIALS AND MANAGERS	PROFESSIONALS	TECHNICIANS	SALES WORKERS	OFFICE AND CLERICAL	TOTAL BLUE COLLAR EMPLOYMENT	CRAFTSMEN	OPERATIVES	LABORERS	
TOTAL, UNITED STATES												
ORIENTAL												
MALE	104716	67896	6876	35067	9796	6044	10113	26581	9722	10318	6541	10239
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	64.8	6.6	33.5	9.4	5.8	9.7	25.4	9.3	9.9	6.2	9.8
PARTICIPATION RATE	.5	.8	.3	1.8	1.0	.4	.8	.2	.3	.2	.3	1.0
FEMALE	71156	51265	1328	14340	4646	3781	27170	13837	1451	8870	3516	6054
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	72.0	1.9	20.2	6.5	5.3	38.2	19.4	2.0	12.5	4.9	8.5
PARTICIPATION RATE	.7	.8	.5	2.3	1.3	.4	.7	.4	.5	.4	.5	.6
TOTAL	175872	119161	8204	49407	14442	9825	37283	40418	11173	19188	10057	16293
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	67.8	4.7	28.1	8.2	5.6	21.2	23.0	6.4	10.9	5.7	9.3
PARTICIPATION RATE	.6	.8	.3	1.9	1.1	.4	.7	.3	.3	.3	.4	.8
AMERICAN INDIAN												
MALE	62280	16991	4883	2238	2246	5015	2609	41354	12077	16866	12411	3935
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	27.3	7.8	3.6	3.6	8.1	4.2	66.4	19.4	27.1	19.9	6.3
PARTICIPATION RATE	.3	.2	.2	.1	.2	.3	.2	.4	.3	.3	.6	.4
FEMALE	35661	15367	714	1141	871	4530	8111	15742	1934	9263	4545	4552
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	43.1	2.0	3.2	2.4	12.7	22.7	44.1	5.4	26.0	12.7	12.8
PARTICIPATION RATE	.3	.2	.3	.2	.2	.4	.2	.5	.7	.4	.6	.4
TOTAL	97941	32358	5597	3379	3117	9545	10720	57096	14011	26129	16956	8487
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	33.0	5.7	3.5	3.2	9.7	10.9	58.3	14.3	26.7	17.3	8.7
PARTICIPATION RATE	.3	.2	.2	.1	.2	.4	.2	.4	.3	.4	.6	.4
SPANISH SURNAMED AMERICAN												
MALE	727541	136155	24272	20538	21137	29652	40556	510613	106013	230722	173878	80773
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	18.7	3.3	2.8	2.9	4.1	5.6	70.2	14.6	31.7	23.9	11.1
PARTICIPATION RATE	3.6	1.7	1.0	1.1	2.1	1.9	3.2	4.7	2.8	4.6	8.7	7.5
FEMALE	367068	141624	3868	8080	8735	24562	96379	181447	16648	102253	62546	43997
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	38.6	1.1	2.2	2.4	6.7	26.3	49.4	4.5	27.9	17.0	12.0
PARTICIPATION RATE	3.5	2.2	1.4	1.3	2.5	2.3	2.4	5.7	5.9	4.9	8.0	4.2
TOTAL	1094609	277779	28140	28618	29872	54214	136935	692060	122661	332975	236424	124770
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	25.4	2.6	2.6	2.7	5.0	12.5	63.2	11.2	30.4	21.6	11.4
PARTICIPATION RATE	3.6	1.9	1.0	1.1	2.2	2.1	2.6	4.9	3.0	4.6	8.5	5.9
NEGRO												
MALE	1946008	253065	40282	32806	37183	57464	85330	1406952	202950	735472	468530	285991
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	13.0	2.1	1.7	1.9	3.0	4.4	72.3	10.4	37.8	24.1	14.7
PARTICIPATION RATE	9.6	3.1	1.6	1.7	3.7	3.7	6.8	12.9	5.3	14.5	23.4	26.6
FEMALE	1157154	437271	11723	30984	45905	56270	292389	445368	28906	279869	136593	274515
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	37.8	1.0	2.7	4.0	4.9	25.3	38.5	2.5	24.2	11.8	23.7
PARTICIPATION RATE	10.9	6.9	4.1	4.9	12.9	5.3	7.3	14.1	10.2	13.3	17.5	25.9
TOTAL	3103162	690336	52005	63790	83088	113734	377719	1852320	231856	1015341	605123	560506
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	22.2	1.7	2.1	2.7	3.7	12.2	59.7	7.5	32.7	19.5	18.1
PARTICIPATION RATE	10.1	4.7	1.9	2.5	6.2	4.3	7.2	13.1	5.6	14.1	21.8	26.3
ALL EMPLOYEES												
MALE	20238478	8246589	2517972	1922738	991667	1563110	1251102	10918047	3849310	5070090	1998647	1073842
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	40.7	12.4	9.5	4.9	7.7	6.2	53.9	19.0	25.1	9.9	5.3
FEMALE	10591116	6363969	284561	627936	355771	1068744	4026957	3169043	282299	2107659	779085	1058098
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	60.1	2.7	5.9	3.4	10.1	38.0	29.9	2.7	19.9	7.4	10.0
TOTAL (137315 ESTAB.)	30829594	14610558	2802533	2550674	1347438	2631854	5278059	14087090	4131609	7177749	2777732	2131940
OCCUPATIONAL DSTR	100.0	47.4	9.1	8.3	4.4	8.5	17.1	45.7	13.4	23.3	9.0	6.9

Source: U. S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

Appendix F

Women Employed in the Skilled Trades, by Detailed Trade, 1960 and 1970

Trade[1]	Number of women employed			Women as percent of total	
	1960[2]	1970	Change, 1960–70	1960	1970
Total	277,140	494,871	217,731	3.1	5.0
Automobile accessories installers	......	297	297	......	4.4
Bakers	20,283	32,665	12,382	18.0	29.8
Blacksmiths	101	249	148	.5	2.4
Blue-collar worker supervisor, n.e.c.	77,728	127,751	50,023	7.2	8.0
Construction	206	1,608	1,402	.2	1.1
Durable manufacturing	14,724	25,539	10,815	4.1	4.6
Nondurable manufacturing, including not specified	40,882	52,193	11,311	13.9	14.4
Transportation, communications, and other public utilities	2,480	5,676	3,196	1.2	3.7
All other industries	19,436	42,735	23,299	9.1	11.8
Boilermakers	41	371	330	.2	1.3
Bookbinders	16,513	19,461	2,948	57.9	57.1
Brickmasons and stonemasons	722	2,049	1,327	.5	1.3
Bulldozer operators	......	1,151	1,151	......	1.3
Cabinetmakers	891	3,429	2,538	1.3	5.1
Carpenters	3,312	11,059	7,747	.4	1.3
Carpet installers	......	754	754	......	1.7
Cement and concrete finishers	100	908	808	.2	1.4
Compositors and typesetters	15,494	23,962	8,468	8.2	15.0
Crane, derrick, and hoist operators	656	1,952	1,296	.5	1.3
Decorators and window dressers	23,566	40,408	16,852	46.3	57.6
Dental laboratory technicians	641	6,057	5,416	4.3	22.7
Electricians	2,483	8,646	6,163	.7	1.8
Electric power and cable installers	1,648	1,457	−191	2.1	1.4
Electrotypers and stereotypers	72	283	211	.8	4.0
Engravers, except photoengravers	1,948	2,333	385	17.3	26.6
Excavating, grading, road machine operators except bulldozer operators	688	2,513	1,825	.4	1.1
Floor layers, except tile setters	882	364	−518	4.9	1.7
Forge and hammer operators	769	724	−45	6.4	4.7
Furniture and wood finishers	768	3,600	2,832	3.5	16.9
Furriers	1,936	461	[3]−1,475	40.4	17.3
Glaziers	227	783	556	1.3	3.1
Heat treaters, annealers, and temperers	293	598	305	1.4	2.9
Inspectors, scalers, and graders, log and lumber	798	1,877	1,079	3.9	11.0
Inspectors, n.e.c.	5,670	8,865	3,195	5.8	7.5
Construction	100	334	234	.7	1.5
Railroads and railway express service	76	247	171	.3	1.0
Jewelers and watchmakers	2,739	4,785	2,046	6.0	11.5
Job and die setters, metal	322	2,221	1,899	.6	2.6
Locomotive engineers	85	396	311	.1	.8
Locomotive firemen	104	151	47	.3	1.2
Machinists	6,685	11,787	5,102	1.3	3.1
Mechanics and repairers	18,329	49,349	31,020	.9	2.0
Air conditioning, heating, and refrigeration	125	1,065	[illegible]	.2	.9
Aircraft	1,668	4,013	2,[illegible]	1.5	2.9
Automobile body repairers	......	1,332	1,332	......	1.2
Automobile mechanics	2,270	11,130	8,860	.4	1.4
Data processing machine repairers	......	864	864	......	2.7
Farm implement	......	420	420	......	1.2
Heavy equipment mechanics, including diesel	3,345	10,768	7,423	1.2	1.8
Household appliance and accessory installers and mechanics	......	2,550	2,550	......	2.1
Loom fixers	208	437	229	.9	2.1
Office machine	279	688	409	.9	1.7
Radio and television	1,688	5,032	3,344	1.7	3.7
Railroad and car shop	332	510	178	.6	.9
Other	8,414	10,540	2,126	1.2	4.2
Millers, grain, flour, and feed	64	161	97	.7	2.3
Millwrights	80	903	823	.1	1.2
Molders, metal	1,452	5,757	4,305	2.9	10.6
Motion picture projectionists	390	670	280	2.2	4.2
Opticians and lens grinders and polishers	3,045	6,121	3,076	15.0	22.3
Painters, construction and maintenance	6,449	13,386	6,937	1.9	4.1
Paperhangers	1,455	1,111	[3]−344	6.0	10.8
Pattern and model makers, except paper	647	1,858	1,211	1.6	4.8
Photoengravers and lithographers	2,847	3,851	1,004	10.4	11.8
Piano and organ tuners and repairers	153	330	177	2.5	4.8
Plasterers	158	435	277	.3	1.5
Plumbers and pipe fitters	952	4,110	3,158	.3	1.1
Power station operators	1,375	557	[3]−818	5.1	3.0
Printing press operators	4,848	13,374	8,526	5.8	8.5
Rollers and finishers, metal	802	1,264	462	4.2	6.4
Roofers and slaters	107	749	642	.2	1.3
Sheetmetal workers and tinsmiths	1,530	2,902	1,372	1.1	1.9
Shipfitters	......	123	123	......	1.2
Shoe repairers	2,759	6,359	3,600	6.7	20.3
Sign painters and letterers	1,286	1,614	328	4.6	8.5
Stationary engineers	1,563	2,472	909	.5	1.4
Stone cutters and stone carvers	132	445	313	2.0	7.0
Structural metal workers	909	883	−26	1.5	1.2
Tailors	21,728	21,265	[3]−463	26.5	31.4
Telephone installers and repairers	3,018	8,289	5,271	2.0	3.5
Telephone line installers and repairers	824	762	−62	2.0	1.5
Tile setters		378	378	......	1.2
Tool and die makers	1,128	4,197	3,069	.6	2.1
Upholsterers	5,668	9,980	4,312	9.4	16.0
Craft and kindred workers, n.e.c.	5,777	7,339	1,562	6.7	8.5

---

[1] Some of the occupational titles that appear in this table and elsewhere in the article are recent modifications of older titles which denoted or connoted sex stereotyping. The new titles were accomplished by a subcommittee of the Interagency Committee on Occupation Classification, under the auspices of the Office of Management and Budget. (See "Removal of Sex Stereotyping in Census Occupational Classification," Monthly Labor Review, January 1974, pp. 67–68.)

[2] Adjusted to 1970 occupation classifications. See John A. Priebe, Joan Heinkel, and Stanley Green, 1970 Occupation and Industry Classification Systems in Terms of Their 1960 Occupation and Industry Elements, Technical Paper 26 (Bureau of the Census, 1972).

[3] Also showed a decline in total employment.

SOURCE: 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, Final Report PC(1)-D1 (Bureau of the Census), table 221.

Appendix G

Get Credit For What You Know

[illegible] . . .

Have you wondered how you really could?

[illegible] "it"? We're talking about educational credit, the kind of credit that puts you in a position for a better job, or for advancement, or gives you a second chance at college and higher education.

Lack of time or money may have deprived you of an education. Now may be the time to think about

- improving your future job opportunities
- qualifying for advanced college placement
- preparing for a new career
- achieving for your personal satisfaction

Did you know that more than two out of every five adult citizens have not graduated from high school?

Of the 111.1 million persons 25 years of age and over in March 1972, 46.5 million had not completed their formal high school education. Of these, 24.6 million were women.

Did you know that people without a high school education have more difficulty finding employment, and those who do frequently must settle for low-paying, uninteresting, dead end jobs?

Unemployment rates were much higher in March 1972 for women who were high school dropouts (10.7 percent) than for high school graduates (5.8 percent) or for college graduates (3.1 percent).

Did you know that average earnings increase with more schooling?

Median incomes of women 25 years of age and over who worked full time year round in 1971 were

- $3,946 for those with less than 8 years of schooling
- $5,808 for high school graduates
- $9,162 for college graduates

Did you know that there are new ways of building educational credit without "going to school"?

A high school diploma is a *must* for almost all desirable jobs today, and in many cases college-level credit is needed for advancement. You may be able to get the equivalent of a high school diploma, college credit, or even a degree, by taking examinations which evaluate learning no matter how it has been acquired—through

- on-the-job training
- correspondence or extension courses
- adult education programs
- educational TV
- independent study

Such alternatives to formal schooling can help you meet the compelling need for educational credentials.

These new ways of getting educational credit have special meaning for women who want to return to school or to work, and who want to return at levels equal to what they have already learned through their life experiences.

Getting High School Credit

Q. It seems as if every job I want to apply for requires at least a high school diploma, but it's been years since I left school without graduating. Do you mean I can get a diploma without going back to a classroom?

A. Yes, by taking a high school equivalency examination. It is designed to test individual competence in certain subject areas. When you pass the General Educational Development (GED) tests, you will get a certificate accredited by your State department of education that is accepted on the same basis as a high school diploma. You may already have the knowledge to pass the examinations without even realizing it!

Q. What kinds of tests are the GED's?

A. There are five parts to the examinations: English, social studies, natural sciences, literature, and mathematics. The tests are designed to measure one's ability to think clearly about ideas and concepts rather than his or her knowledge of facts. Spanish versions of the GED have been available since 1971 and are administered in 20 States.

Q. Who is eligible to take the high school equivalency examination?

Source: Women's Bureau Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1974

A. Any adult who wishes to apply. GED tests are given at approximately 2,000 official centers throughout the country. They are also given to

- ○ individuals in State and Federal correctional and health institutions
- ○ patients in Veterans Administration hospitals
- ○ military personnel on active duty
- ○ American citizens overseas
- ○ foreign nationals
- ○ the visually handicapped
- ○ residents in several Canadian Provinces

Q. Is GED testing widely used?

A. Yes. During 1971 a total of almost 400,000 adults took the GED tests, representing a fourfold increase during the past 10 years.

The average age of those tested was 26 years; the average number of years of formal schooling these individuals had attained was equivalent to tenth grade.

Q. Who determines standards for passing the examinations?

A. Each State department of education establishes its minimum score for the issuance of a certificate.

Q. Is it necessary to prepare for the tests?

A. Many people will feel ready to take them without further preparation. For some who do not, help in preparing for the examinations may be obtained from organizations and agencies conducting special programs for adults. These include Federal and State civil service commissions, public and private schools, businesses and industries, the Job Corps, and other government agencies.

○ For information about programs in your area, contact your local Superintendent of Schools or Adult Education Supervisor, or write to the Adult Education Association of the United States of America, 1225 19th Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20036.

○ The Federal Government has many training programs which provide basic literacy skills, remedial reading, and brushup courses. Contact your local State employment service about how to get into such a program.

A. [illegible] study or [illegible] adults prefer [illegible] provide personally supervised [illegible] study. The Federal Government [illegible] correspondence courses for military [illegible] courses in work-related subjects for [illegible] employees. In addition, colleges and universities, businesses and industries, labor unions, religious denominations, and private home-study schools offer a wide range of courses.

Q. If I decide on correspondence study with a private home-study school, how do I select a school?

A. You are more likely to be on safe ground when you choose an accredited correspondence school. Special care should also be exercised in the selection of courses to be sure they meet individual goals and will be completed.

The National Home Study Council has been designated by the U. S. Office of Education as the recognized accreditation agency for private home-study schools. While many nonaccredited schools may be reliable, only 188 of the more than 800 private correspondence schools presently in operation are accredited.

○ For a directory of accredited schools, write to the National Home Study Council, 1601 18th Street NW., Washington, D. C. 20009.

To check on schools that are not accredited, contact your State department of education, local Chamber of Commerce, or the Veterans Administration.

Q. Is there any other way I can obtain assistance in getting my certificate?

A. Yes. TV High School was developed for this purpose by the Manpower Education Institute, a private organization sponsored jointly by labor and management. The course consists of 60 half-hour lessons covering the five subject areas tested. A home-study kit, with 10 paperback texts and a study guide containing lesson outlines, study aids, and bibliographies, is available for a nominal fee.

Programs based on this curriculum have been used in communities throughout the country. Statewide coverage with broad citizen support was undertaken in Arizona. TV High School has also been [illegible] TV courses.

For information, write to [illegible] Institute, 450 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017; or, Great Plains Instructional Television Library, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr. 68508; or, Dr. Catherine G. Nichols, College of Education, Arizona State University, Tempe, Ariz. 85281.

Local educational TV stations often provide public service programs of this type. Contact your Superintendent of Schools or your local stations about this.

Q. How can I get further information about taking the GED examinations and getting a diploma?

A. Ask your local board of education or community college about the program, or write to the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experience, American Council on Education, 1 Dupont Circle NW., Washington, D.C. 20036 for:

- State policies on the issuance of high school certificates based on the GED results
- a list of official GED centers
- information on the granting of high school credit for military educational experience

Getting College Credit

Q. Is there any way to receive credit for college-level achievement whether or not high school has been completed?

A. Yes, many colleges and universities grant such credit through special examinations. The tests provide a way to secure academic credit and give people a chance to show that they have the equivalent of some college education even though they never went to college. In other words, these examinations give credit for what a person knows no matter how he or she learned it.

Q. What kinds of examinations would enable me to get college credit or advanced placement without formal classroom preparation?

A. There are programs through which examinations may be taken.

- The College Proficiency Examination (CPE) was established in 1963 by the New York Board of Regents. The primary areas where credit may be obtained through CPE are health education, the nursing sciences, foreign languages, and professional education.

- The College-Level Examination Program (CLEP) was conceived in 1965 and introduced in the fall of 1967 by the College Entrance Examination Board. Thirty-three General and Subject Examinations are currently being used. You may take one or several tests, depending upon your goals, needs, and motivations. The General Examinations provide a way to show that you have acquired some general education, the equivalent of what is offered in required freshman and sophomore courses at many colleges. General Examinations are given in five basic areas: English composition, mathematics, natural sciences, social sciences, and humanities. The Subject Examinations are a more intensive measure of ability in special areas such as general psychology, American government, and introductory economics.

Q. Who gives the credit for CPE and CLEP tests?

A. In both programs, the colleges and universities which are among the participating institutions decide the amount of credit to grant and specify the scores they require. More than 200 institutions in New York and other northeastern States grant credit toward completion of degree requirements through CPE. More than 1,300 colleges and universities throughout the country award credit through CLEP. Neither CPE nor CLEP grants college credits.

Q. What are some advantages of taking the tests?

A. The test scores are used as a means of developing appropriate procedures for the admission and placement of persons who wish to continue their education. In some States, certification boards and licensing agencies accept CLEP results in lieu of college training to meet requirements for such professions as library science, law, and accounting. Businesses and industrial organizations also make use of the programs in determining qualifications of individuals for higher positions, or in filling jobs with special requirements.

Q. How can I get help in preparing myself to take college-level examinations?

A. One means is through independent study. The National University Extension Association is a major national organization of those public and private institutions which offer such courses. For a list of accredited colleges and universities where home-study courses are offered, write for the booklet titled "Guide to Independent Study." (75 cents) For degree programs through independent study, write for "A Directory of U. S. College and University Degrees for Part-Time Students." ($1.95) Both are available from the National University Extension Association, Suite 360, 1 Dupont Circle NW., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Q. How can I arrange to take the examinations?

A. For information about participating institutions, registration, location of test centers, description of examinations, and other details of the program, write

- Dr. Donald J. Nolan, Director, College Proficiency Examination Program, State Education Department, Albany, N.Y. 12224.
- CLEP, College Entrance Examination Board, Box 1821, Princeton, N.J. 08540, or Box 1025, Berkeley, Calif. 94701.

Other Ways of Acquiring Degrees

Q. Are degrees ever granted based primarily on off-campus study?

A. Yes, and there is a growing trend toward the accreditation of independent study. Individuals may now qualify for degrees under special plans in some institutions. Bachelor's and master's degrees are offered under flexible arrangements at such schools as Syracuse University, Goddard College, the University of Oklahoma, and the University of South Florida.

Q. Are there other ways of getting college degrees outside the usual residential and classroom requirements?

A. Yes, such nontraditional programs are sometimes referred to as the "open university" or the "university without walls."

- The Regents External Degree Program, initiated in 1971 by the State of New York, permits degrees in some fields based entirely upon examination, with no college attendance required. Anyone—regardless of residence—is eligible for the external degree on an evaluation of the individual's experience, independent study, or other nontraditional approaches to education. Associate degrees may be obtained in certain specialized technical fields. For further information, write: The Regents External Degree Program, State Education Department, 99 Washington Street, Albany, N.Y. 12210.
- A similar program is being undertaken in the State of New Jersey. For information, write: Thomas A. Edison College, c/o Department of Higher Education, 225 East State Street, Trenton, N.J. 08625.

Q. Where can I find out more about ways to work on my own time for college credit?

A. For a comprehensive description of schools and course offerings, both academic and vocational, traditional and new, in the classroom and through the mail, for credit or noncredit, consult:

The New York Times Guide to Continuing Education in America, prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board and published by Quadrangle Press, 330 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017 ($4.95)

For information about programs tailored especially for women, write for:

"Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women" (Pamphlet 10) prepared by the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, and available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. (70 cents)

Why Not Get Credit For What You Know? You'll Be Glad You Did!

Farmer Case Studies

ANN

Ann had been preparing to attend the University in the Fall to pursue a career in secondary education. This goal had been established by her several years ago; but recently, Ann has become increasingly apprehensive about it. She has not stated any particular reasons for these anxieties to her friends or instructors.

Ann is 20 years old and is a second semester sophomore who normally maintains a B+ average. She is an only child who still lives at home and has been overprotected all of her life. She has never managed her own affairs for an extended period of time. Both of Ann's parents are teachers and Ann grew up in an atmosphere where education was a major preoccupation. Since both she and her parents more or less assumed that she would follow their careers, Ann has never really seriously examined her desire to become a teacher.

As Ann pursued her freshman and sophomore years with a general education curriculum, she discovered her interests were broader than she realized. She has had a number of academic experiences which have stimulated her and could lead to potentially satisfying careers other than teaching. But she is still anticipating a teaching career.

The problem, as discussed in the interview, was relatively clear. Her physical and mental anxieties were associated with

Source: Helen S. Farmer, PhD

the need either to accept a teaching career and its consequences or begin to explore other possibilities in spite of pressure from home. She was recommended for Guided Inquiry Group Counseling.

SUE

Sue is a 19 year old first semester freshman. She is black and from an impoverished background. The counselor noted her shyness and tenseness in the first interview. She has been having trouble with headaches. Two things seem to touch off her stress: 1) criticism of any sort makes her very anxious, 2) she becomes very up-tight when thinking about her life goals,(she strongly feels the need to decide on a college major).

She lives at home in a small apartment with her mother. Her father is dead and her mother supports Sue and two younger brothers by working as a waitress. Sue contributed financially when she was in high school by working as a car hop. In high school, her academic performance was B+. After graduation, she worked for one year as a clerk in a grocery store in order to help out at home and save money for college.

She has been undecided about her career choice but has expressed some interest in nursing. Her grades in college have maintained B+ standing. She had a serious boyfriend who wanted to get married, but when she insisted on completing her college career first, the relationship ended. On the other hand, she feels a continuing responsibility to help contribute to the family income and help her mother with her two brothers. She is considering dropping out of school for this reason.

Strong Vocational Interest test results reflected no primary interest pattern. She is capable and would probably do well in a vocational-technical program. She was recommended for Guided Inquiry Group Counseling.

CAROL

Carol is a 19 year old second semester sophomore with an undecided major. She is quite attractive and from a well-to-do family living in an exclusive residential area near the college. She has no firm academic or vocational goals, but generally sees herself to be a strongly social-service oriented person. She has thought about social work in an orphanage. At the same time, she is highly oriented to getting married, having a home, and raising children. She has always dated a great deal, has many friends, and gets along well with peers of both sexes.

She is ambivalent about the future. She's not sure she wants a life similar to her parents and feels mild guilt about the pleasures she has experienced from the things money can buy.

What she said she agreed to accomplish in counseling was to have an opportunity to talk to someone outside her circle of friends about her conflicting life interests and perhaps, as a consequence, work out a value system for herself. Carol recognizes her career potential but is not sure how to fulfill it. She was recommended for Guided Inquiry Group Counseling by a friend.

Appendix I

NIE Guidelines on Testing

I. The Inventory Itself

A. The same interest inventory form should be used for both males and females unless it is shown empirically that separate forms are more effective in minimizing sex bias.

B. Scores on all occupations and interest areas covered by the inventory should be given for both males and females, with the sex composition of norms--i.e., whether male, female, or combined sex norms--for each scale clearly indicated.

C. Insofar as possible, item pools should reflect experiences and activities equally familiar to both females and males. In instances where this is not currently possible, a minimum requirement is that the number of items generally favored by each sex be balanced. Further, it is desirable that the balance of items favored by each sex be achieved within individual scales, within the limitations imposed by validity considerations.

D. Occupational titles used in the inventory should be presented in gender-neutral terms (e.g., letter carrier instead of mailman), or both male and female titles should be presented (e.g., actor/actress).

E. Use of the generic "he" or "she" should be eliminated throughout the inventory.

Source: National Institute of Education, 1973

II. Technical Information

A. Technical materials provided by the publisher should describe how and to what extent these guidelines have been met in the inventory and supporting materials.

B. Technical information should provide the rationale for either separate scales by sex or combined-sex scales (e.g., critical differences in male-female response rates that affect the validity of the scales vs. similarity of response rates that justify combining data from males and females into a single scale.

C. Even if it is empirically demonstrated that separate inventory forms are more effective in minimizing sex bias, thus justifying their use, the same vocational areas should be indicated for each sex.

D. Sex composition of the criterion and norm groups should be included in descriptions of these groups. Furthermore, reporting of scores for one sex on scales normed or constructed on the basis of data from the other sex should be supported by evidence of validity--if not for each scale, then by a pattern of evidence of validity established for males and females scored on pairs of similar scales (male-normed and female-normed, for the same occupation).

E. Criterion groups, norms, and other relevant data (e.g., validity, reliability, item response rates) should be examined at least every five years to determine the need for updating.

New data may be required as occupations change or as sex and other characteristics of persons entering occupations change. Text manuals should clearly label the date of data collection for criterion or norm groups for each occupation.

F. Technical materials should include information about how suggested or implied career options (e.g., options suggested by the highest scores on the inventory) are distributed for samples of typical respondents of each sex.

G. Steps should be taken to investigate the validity of interest inventories for minority groups (differentiated by sex). Publishers should describe comparative studies and should clearly indicate whether differences were found between groups.

III. Interpretive Information

A. The user's manual provided by the publisher should describe how and to what extent these guidelines have been met in the inventory and the supporting materials.

B. Interpretive materials for test users and respondents (manuals, profiles, leaflets, etc.) should explain how to interpret scores resulting from separate or combined male and female norms or criterion groups.

C. Interpretive materials for interest inventory scores should point out that the vocational interests and choices of men and women are influenced by many environmental and cultural factors, including early socialization, traditional sex-role expectations of society, home-versus-career conflict, and the experiences typical of women and men as members of various ethnic and social class groups.

D. Manuals should recommend that the inventory be accompanied by orientation dealing with possible influences of factors in C above on men's and women's scores. Such orientation should encourage respondents to examine stereotypic "sets" toward activities and occupations and should help respondents to see that there is virtually no activity or occupation that is exclusively male or female.

E. Interpretive materials for inventories that use homogeneous scales, such as health and mechanical, should encourage both sexes to look at all career and educational options, not just those traditionally associated with their sex group, within the broad areas in which their highest scores fall.

F. Occupational titles used in the interpretive materials and in the interpretation session should be stated in gender-neutral terms (e.g., letter carrier instead of mailman) or both male and female titles should be presented (e.g., actor/actress).

G. The written discussions in the interpretive materials (as well as all inventory text) should be stated in a way which overcomes the impression presently embedded in the English language that a) people in general are of the male gender, and b) certain social roles are automatically sex-linked.

H. The user's manual a) should state clearly that all jobs are appropriate for qualified persons of either sex; and b) should attempt to dispel myths about women and men in the world of work that are based on sex-role stereotypes. Furthermore, ethnic occupational stereotypes should not be reinforced.

I. The user's manual should address possible user biases in regard to sex roles and to their possible interaction with age, ethnic group, and social class, and should caution against transmitting these biases to the respondent or reinforcing the respondent's own biases.

J. Where differences in validity have been found between dominant and minority groups (differentiated by sex), separate interpretive procedures and materials should be provided that take these differences into account.

K. Interpretive materials for respondent and user should encourage exploratory experiences in areas where interests have not had a chance to develop.

L. Interpretive materials for persons re-entering paid employment or education and persons changing careers or entering post-retirement careers should give special attention to score interpretation in terms of the effects of years of stereotyping and home-career conflict, the norms on which the scores are based, and the options such individuals might explore on the basis of current goals and past experiences and activities.

M. Case studies and examples presented in the interpretive materials should represent men and women equally and should include but not be limited to examples of each in a variety of non-stereotypic roles. Case studies and examples of mature men and women and of men and women in different social class and ethnic groups should also be included where applicable.

N. Both user's manuals and respondent's materials should make it clear that interest inventory scores provide only one kind of helpful information, and that this information should always be considered together with other relevant information--skills, accomplishments, favored activities, experiences, hobbies, influences, other test scores, and the like--in making any career decision. However, the possible biases of these variables should also be taken into consideration.

Appendix J

Preparing a Work Resume

FORMAT

A factual, well-organized, one-page resume will command attention, while a lengthy, wordy one might be put aside until the interviewer or employer has "more time". Since it is in essence an outline, underlining and capitalization will accent those features which you wish to emphasize. Make it more eye-appealing with lots of "white space", as they do in advertising layout.

A resume should be attractively typed. Photocopies or xerox copies are acceptable, but not smudgy carbon copies. Use good quality paper.

CONTENT

Make sure that every detail included will be relevant. You may have to write more than one draft until you find one that satisfies you. To conserve space, the language will be somewhat like that of a classified ad.

Headings There is no prescribed sequence for the headings you use.

OBJECTIVE Statement of an objective is optional. If you prefer to leave the door open for all possible opportunities, delete this section. On the other hand, your prospective employer might not want to bother to analyze your resume himself. This will then be a clear statement of the job you seek. A separate resume for distinctive job objectives can be another possibility.

EDUCATION Those with recent training or degrees will want to begin with this heading. Also, if your educational background has a definite bearing on your present job hunt, you can elaborate on courses, honors, activities. Be sure to use reverse chronological order. The more you have to offer of practical work experience, however, the less space you will use for formal education.

WORK EXPERIENCE

You do not have to use dates, and salaries need not be included. Start with your recent or current employer and go backwards. Describe each job title and the duties performed succinctly.

Source: University Extension, University of California at Los Angeles

PERSONAL DATA

Under personal data you are either single, married, or widowed. (There may be still some lingering prejudice in hiring those who are divorced.) You may or may not want to include your age or those of children. Whether you have a driver's license and a car would also be pertinent information. Hobbies, organizational memberships, and foreign language skills can give a better picture of you.

REFERENCES

These can be omitted to save space, but you might indicate that they are available on request.

The functional, as opposed to the chronological, type of resume is less popular, but more suitable for those with a range of abilities or areas of experience which can be summed up to show the kind of work you want to do. (Ex. Fund raising, promotion work) In this form, specific names and dates are of secondary importance.

Many of the books suggested in this course contain additional information and sample resumes.

J-3

Inventory of Personal Information

You may have many more items under any of these headings. This is the pool of information from which you may draw in writing your resume for a particular purpose.

EDUCATION

B.A., UCLA 1948; Major -- History Favorite courses: Cultural Anthropology, Ancient Civilizations of Middle America, English Novel. Was Secretary of Senior Class and worked as Library Aide

Non-credit:
1967-68: 1 year docent training in science and history, L.A. County Museum of Natural History
1962 to present: UCLA Extension classes in archaeology, Spanish, Art History, Anthropology
1965,1967: ceramic classes - Beverly Hills High School

WORK EXPERIENCE

L.A. County Museum of Natural History 1967-72	(Volunteer) School tour guide, typist for archaeologist, placement of new docents with curators, some work on monthly bulletin.
Dubnoff School North Hillwood (877-5678) 1960-67	(Volunteer) Orientation counseling for parents of new students--school for handicapped children. Organized fund-raising events and assisted on publicity. Edited school's descriptive literature.
L.A. County Law Library 1950-55	First as secretary to the Librarian, then secretary to Chief, Order Department. Typed, filed correspondence, ordered books, and handled foreign exchanges.
YMCA - North Hillwood 1948-50	Part-time clerical. Office skills included typing, filing, mimeographing, bookkeeping. Did some promotion work.

SPECIAL SKILLS

Can type 50 w.p.m., compose correspondence, publicity. Have some knowledge of archaeological procedures, vocabulary and research. Can prepare bibliographies. Translate simple Spanish. Have led school tours in museum. Can drive a car. Good speaking voice. Have ability: with words, to handle detailed work, and in working with people.

SPECIAL INTERESTS

Anthropology, archaeology (particularly that of North America), doing literary research, problems of retardation in children, working with people.

SPECIAL PREFERENCES

Enjoyed most my classes and museum work having to do with anthropology and archaeology. The work with the children and parents at the Dubnoff School was very satisfying emotionally, because of my own child's situation, but the work content was not as steadily interesting to me as the museum work. I liked the museum climate the best also, the office climate (at the YMCA job) the least. I prefer working with several other people in a situation where each person has his special function, but all are directed toward the same project.

OBJECTIVE

Museum curator -- would require graduate study and degree. Short of that, assistant to a curator; I am fairly well equipped for this position. I have, in fact, had this sort of spot as a volunteer; I would like to be paid for the same work.

REFERENCES

Dr. Curator
L.A. County Museum of Natural History
Los Angeles, CA
(telephone:___________)

Mrs. Counselor
Student Counseling Center
UCLA
Los Angeles, CA
(telephone:___________)

Mr. Bigshot
Vice-president, XYZ Corporation
Executive Drive
Los Angeles, CA
(telephone:___________)

Mrs. Prominent Citizen
12345 North Watsis Drive
Beverly Hills, CA
(telephone:___________)

Dr. Professional
Dubnoff School
10625 Victory Place
North Hillwood, CA
(telephone:___________)

Appendix K

Title VII

Title 29—LABOR

Chapter XIV—Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

PART 1604—GUIDELINES ON DISCRIMINATION BECAUSE OF SEX

By virtue of the authority vested in it by section 713(b) of title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, 42 U.S.C., section 2000e–12, 78 Stat. 265, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission hereby revises Title 29, Chapter XIV, Part 1604 of the Code of Federal Regulations.

These Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex supersede and enlarge upon the Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex, issued by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission on December 2, 1965, and all amendments thereto. Because the material herein is interpretive in nature, the provisions of the Administrative Procedure Act (5 U.S.C. 553) requiring notice of proposed rule making, opportunity for public participation, and delay in effective date are inapplicable. The Guidelines shall be applicable to charges and cases presently pending or hereafter filed with the Commission.

Sec.
1604.1 General principles.
1604.2 Sex as a bona fide occupational qualification.
1604.3 Separate lines of progression and seniority systems.
1604.4 Discrimination against married women.
1604.5 Job opportunities advertising.
1604.6 Employment agencies.
1604.7 Pre-employment inquiries as to sex.
1604.8 Relationship of Title VII to the Equal Pay Act.
1604.9 Fringe benefits.
1604.10 Employment policies relating to pregnancy and childbirth.

AUTHORITY: The provisions of this Part 1604 issued under sec. 713(b), 78 Stat. 265, 42 U.S.C. sec. 2000e–12.

§ 1604.1 General principles.

(a) References to "employer" or "employers" in this Part 1604 state principles that are applicable not only to employers but also to labor organizations and to employment agencies insofar as their action or inaction may adversely affect employment opportunities.

(b) To the extent that the views expressed in prior Commission pronouncements are inconsistent with the views expressed herein, such prior views are hereby overruled.

(c) The Commission will continue to consider particular problems relating to sex discrimination on a case-by-case basis.

§ 1604.2 Sex as a bona fide occupational qualification.

(a) The Commission believes that the bona fide occupational qualification exception as to sex should be interpreted narrowly. Labels—"Men's jobs" and "Women's jobs"—tend to deny employment opportunities unnecessarily to one sex or the other.

(1) The Commission will find that the following situations do not warrant the application of the bona fide occupational qualification exception:

(i) The refusal to hire a woman because of her sex based on assumptions of the comparative employment characteristics of women in general. For example, the assumption that the turnover rate among women is higher than among men.

(ii) The refusal to hire an individual based on sterotyped characterizations of the sexes. Such steretoypes include, for example, that men are less capable of assembling intricate equipment; that women are less capable of aggressive salesmanship. The principle of nondiscrimination requires that individuals be considered on the basis of individual capacities and not on the basis of any characteristics generally attributed to the group.

(iii) The refusal to hire an individual because of the preferences of coworkers, the employer, clients or customers except as covered specifically in subparagraph (2) of this paragraph.

(2) Where it is necessary for the purpose of authenticity or genuineness, the Commission will consider sex to be a bona fide occupational qualification, e.g., an actor or actress.

(b) Effect of sex-oriented State employment legislation.

(1) Many States have enacted laws or promulgated administrative regulations with respect to the employment of females. Among these laws are those which prohibit or limit the employment of females, e.g., the employment of females in certain occupations, in jobs requiring the lifting or carrying of weights exceeding certain prescribed limits, during certain hours of the night, for more than a specified number of hours per day or per week, and for certain periods of time before and after childbirth. The Commission has found that such laws and regulations do not take into account the capacities, preferences, and abilities of individual females and, therefore, discriminate on the basis of sex. The Commission has concluded that such laws and regulations conflict with and are superseded by title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Accordingly, such laws will not be considered a defense to an otherwise established unlawful employment practice or as a basis for the application of the bona fide occupational qualification exception.

(2) The Commission has concluded that State laws and regulations which discriminate on the basis of sex with regard to the employment of minors are in conflict with and are superseded by title VII to the extent that such laws are more restrictive for one sex. Accordingly, restrictions on the employment of minors of one sex over and above those imposed on minors of the other sex will not be considered a defense to an otherwise established unlawful employment practice or as a basis for the application of the bona fide occupational qualification exception.

(3) A number of States require that minimum wage and premium pay for overtime be provided for female employees. An employer will be deemed to have engaged in an unlawful employment practice if:

(i) It refuses to hire or otherwise adversely affects the employment opportunities of female applicants or employees in order to avoid the payment of minimum wages or overtime pay required by State law; or

(ii) It does not provide the same benefits for male employees.

(4) As to other kinds of sex-oriented State employment laws, such as those requiring special rest and meal periods or physical facilities for women, provision of these benefits to one sex only will be a violation of title VII. An employer will be deemed to have engaged in an unlawful employment practice if:

(i) It refuses to hire or otherwise adversely affects the employment opportunities of female applicants or employees in order to avoid the provision of such benefits; or

(ii) It does not provide the same benefits for male employees. If the employer can prove that business necessity precludes providing these benefits to both men and women, then the State law is in conflict with and superseded by tile VII as to this employer. In this situation, the employer shall not provide such benefits to members of either sex.

(5) Some States require that separate restrooms be provided for employees of each sex. An employer will be deemed to have engaged in an unlawful employment practice if it refuses to hire or otherwise adversely affects the employment opportunities of applicants or employees in order to avoid the provision of such restrooms for persons of that sex.

§ 1604.3 Separate lines of progression and seniority systems.

(a) It is an unlawful employment practice to classify a job as "male" or "female" or to maintain separate lines of progression or separate seniority lists based on sex where this would adversely affect any employee unless sex is a bona fide occupational qualification for that job. Accordingly, employment practices are unlawful which arbitrarily classify jobs so that:

(1) A female is prohibited from applying for a job labeled "male," or for a job in a "male" line of progression; and vice versa.

(2) A male scheduled for layoff is prohibited from displacing a less senior female on a "female" seniority list; and vice versa.

(b) A Seniority system or line of progression which distinguishes between "light" and "heavy" jobs constitutes an unlawful employment practice if it operates as a disguised form of classification by sex, or creates unreasonable obstacles to the advancement by members of either sex into jobs which members of that sex would reasonably be expected to perform.

Source: Federal Register, 1972

§ 16 Discrimination against married women.

(a) The Commission has determined that an employer's rule which forbids or restricts the employment of married women and which is not applicable to married men is a discrimination based on sex prohibited by title VII of the Civil Rights Act. It does not seem to us relevant that the rule is not directed against all females, but only against married females, for so long as sex is a factor in the application of the rule, such application involves a discrimination based on sex.

(b) It may be that under certain circumstances, such a rule could be justified within the meaning of section 703 (e)(1) of title VII. We express no opinion on this question at this time except to point out that sex as a bona fide occupational qualification must be justified in terms of the peculiar requirements of the particular job and not on the basis of a general principle such as the desirability of spreading work.

§ 1604.5 Job opportunities advertising.

It is a violation of title VII for a help-wanted advertisement to indicate a preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination based on sex unless sex is a bona fide occupational qualification for the particular job involved. The placement of an advertisement in columns classified by publishers on the basis of sex, such as columns headed "Male" or "Female," will be considered an expression of a preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination based on sex.

§ 1604.6 Employment agencies.

(a) Section 703(b) of the Civil Rights Act specifically states that it shall be unlawful for an employment agency to discriminate against any individual because of sex. The Commission has determined that private employment agencies which deal exclusively with one sex are engaged in an unlawful employment practice, except to the extent that such agencies limit their services to furnishing employees for particular jobs for which sex is a bona fide occupational qualification.

(b) An employment agency that receives a job order containing an unlawful sex specification will share responsibility with the employer placing the job order if the agency fills the order knowing that the sex specification is not based upon a bona fide occupational qualification. However, an employment agency will not be deemed to be in violation of the law, regardless of the determination as to the employer, if the agency does not have reason to believe that the employer's claim of bona fide occupations qualification is without substance and the agency makes and maintains a written record available to the Commission of each such job order. Such record shall include the name of the employer, the description of the job and the basis for the employer's claim of bona fide occupational qualification.

(c) It is the responsibility of employment agencies to keep informed of opinions and decisions of the Commission on sex discrimination.

§ 1604.7 Pre-employment inquiries as to sex.

A pre-employment inquiry may ask "Male ----------, Female ----------"; or "Mr. Mrs. Miss," provided that the inquiry is made in good faith for a nondiscriminatory purpose. Any pre-employment inquiry in connection with prospective employment which expresses directly or indirectly any limitation, specification, or discrimination as to sex shall be unlawful unless based upon a bona fide occupational qualification.

§ 1604.8 Relationship of Title VII to the Equal Pay Act.

(a) The employee coverage of the prohibitions against discrimination based on sex contained in title VII is coextensive with that of the other prohibitions contained in title VII and is not limited by section 703(h) to those employees covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act.

(b) By virtue of section 703(h), a defense based on the Equal Pay Act may be raised in a proceeding under title VII.

(c) Where such a defense is raised the Commission will give appropriate consideration to the interpretations of the Administrator, Wage and Hour Division, Department of Labor, but will not be bound thereby.

§ 1604.9 Fringe benefits.

(a) "Fringe benefits," as used herein, includes medical, hospital, accident, life insurance and retirement benefits; profit-sharing and bonus plans; leave; and other terms, conditions, and privileges of employment.

(b) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to discriminate between men and women with regard to fringe benefits.

(c) Where an employer conditions benefits available to employees and their spouses and families on whether the employee is the "head of the household" or "principal wage earner" in the family unit, the benefits tend to be available only to male employees and their families. Due to the fact that such conditioning discriminatorily affects the rights of women employees, and that "head of household" or "principal wage earner" status bears no relationship to job performance, benefits which are so conditioned will be found a prima facie violation of the prohibitions against sex discrimination contained in the Act.

(d) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to make available benefits for the wives and families of male employees where the same benefits are not made available for the husbands and families of female employees; or to make available benefits for the wives of male employees which are not made available for female employees; or to make available benefits to the husbands of female employers which are not made available for male employees. An example of such an unlawful employment practice is a situation in which wives of male employees receive maternity benefits while female employees receive no such benefits.

(e) It shall not be a defense under title VIII to a charge of sex discrimination in benefits that the cost of such benefits is greater with respect to one sex than the other.

(f) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to have a pension or retirement plan which establishes different optional or compulsory retirement ages based on sex,, or which differentiates in benefits on the basis of sex. A statement of the General Counsel of September 13, 1968, providing for a phasing out of differentials with regard to optional retirement age for certain incumbent employees is hereby withdrawn.

§ 1604.10 Employment policies relating to pregnancy and childbirth.

(a) A written or unwritten employment policy or practice which excludes from employment applicants or employees because of pregnancy is in prima facie violation of title VII.

(b) Disabilities caused or contributed to by pregnancy, miscarriage, abortion, childbirth, and recovery therefrom are, for all job-related purposes, temporary disabilities and should be treated as such under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan available in connection with employment. Written and unwritten employment policies and practices involving matters such as the commencement and duration of leave, the availability of extensions, the accrual of seniority and other benefits and privileges, reinstatement, and payment under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan, formal or informal, shall be applied to disability due to pregnancy or childbirth on the same terms and conditions as they are applied to other temporary disabilities.

(c) Where the termination of an employee who is temporarily disabled is caused by an employment policy under which insufficient or no leave is available, such a termination violates the Act if it has a disparate impact on employees of one sex and is not justified by business necessity.

Effective date. This revision shall become effective on the date of its publication in the FEDERAL REGISTER (4-5-72).

Signed at Washington, D.C., this the 31st day of March 1972.

WILLIAM H. BROWN III,
Chairman.

[FR Doc 72-5213 Filed 3-31-72;4:30 pm]

Appendix L

Executive Order 11246

TITLE 41 - PUBLIC CONTRACTS AND PROPERTY MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER 60 - OFFICE OF FEDERAL CONTRACT COMPLIANCE

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

PART 60-20 - SEX DISCRIMINATION GUIDELINES

On January 17, 1969, proposed guidelines were published at 34 F.R. 758 to amend Chapter 60 of Title 41 of the Code of Federal Regulations by adding a new Part 60-20. Persons interested were given an opportunity to file written data, views or argument concerning the proposals. Also, public hearings were held on August 4, 5, and 6, to receive oral presentations from interested persons.

Having considered all relevant material, 41 CFR Chapter 60 is hereby amended by adding a new Part 60-20 to read as follows:

PART 60-20 -- SEX DISCRIMINATION GUIDELINES

Sec.

60-20.1 Title and Purpose.
60-20.2 Recruitment and Advertisement.
60-20.3 Job Policies and Practices.
60-20.4 Seniority Systems.
60-20.5 Discriminatory Wages.
60-20.6 Affirmative Action
60-20.7 Effective Date.

AUTHORITY: The provisions of this Part 60-20 issued Under Sec. 201, E. O. 11246, 30 F.R. 12319, and E.O. 11375, 32 F.R. 14303.

Source: U. S. Department of Labor

60-20.1 Title and Purpose.

The purpose of the provisions in this part is to set forth the interpretations and guidelines of the Office of Federal Contract Compliance regarding the implementation of Executive Order 11375 for the promotion and insuring of equal opportunities for all persons employed or seeking employment with Government contractors and subcontractors or with contractors and subcontractors performing under Federally-assisted construction contracts, without regard to sex. Experience has indicated that special problems related to the implementation of Executive Order 11375 require a definitive treatment beyond the terms of the Order itself. These interpretations are to be read in connection with existing regulations, set forth in 41 CFR Chapter 60, Part 1.

60-20.2 Recruitment and Advertisement.

(a) Employers engaged in recruiting activity must recruit employees of both sexes for all jobs unless sex is a bona fide occupational qualification.

(b) Advertisement in newspapers and other media for employment must not express a sex preference unless sex is a bona fide occupational qualification for the job. The placement of an advertisement in columns headed "Male" or "Female" will be considered an expression of a preference, limitation, specification or discrimination based on sex.

60-20.3 Job Policies and Practices.

(a) Written personnel policies relating to this subject area must expressly indicate that there shall be no discrimination against employees on account of sex. If the employer deals with a bargaining representative for his employees and there is a written agreement on conditions of employment, such agreement shall not be inconsistent with these guidelines.

(b) Employees of both sexes shall have an equal opportunity to any available job that he or she is qualified to perform, unless sex is a bona fide occupational qualification. (Note: In most Government contract work there are only limited instances where valid reasons can be expected to exist which would justify the exclusion of all men or all women from any given job.)

(c) The employer must not make any distinction based upon sex in employment opportunities, wages, hours, or other conditions of employment. In the area of employer contributions for insurance, pensions, welfare programs and other similar "fringe benefits" the employer will not be considered to have violated these guidelines if his contributions are the same for men and women or if the resulting benefits are equal.

(d) Any distinction between married and unmarried persons of one sex that is not made between married and unmarried persons of the opposite sex will be considered to be a distinction made on the basis of sex. Similarly, an employer must not deny employment to women with young children unless it has the same exclusionary policies for men; or terminate an employee of one sex in a particular job classification upon reaching a certain age unless the same rule is applicable to members of the opposite sex.

(e) The employer's policies and practices must assure appropriate physical facilities to both sexes. The employer may not refuse to hire men or women, or deny men or women a particular job because there are no restroom or associated facilities, unless the employer is able to show that the construction of the facilities would be unreasonable for such reasons as excessive expense or lack of space.

(f) An employer must not deny a female employee the right to any job that she is qualified to perform in reliance upon a State "protective" law. For example, such laws include those which prohibit women from performing in certain types of occupations (e.g., a bartender or a core-maker); from working at jobs requiring more than a certain number of hours; and from working at jobs that require lifting or carrying more than designated weights.

Such legislation was intended to be beneficial, but, instead, has been found to result in restricting employment opportunities for men and/or women. Accordingly, it cannot be used as a basis for denying employment or for establishing sex as a bona fide occupational qualification for the job.

(g) Women shall not be penalized in their conditions of employment because they require time away from work on account of childbearing. When, under the employer's leave policy the female employee would qualify for leave, then childbearing must be considered by the employer to be a justification for leave of absence for female employees for a reasonable period of time. For example, if the female employee meets the equally applied minimum length of service requirements for leave time, she must be granted a reasonable leave on account of childbearing. The conditions applicable to her leave (other than the length thereof) and to her return to employment, shall be in accordance with the employer's leave policy.

If the employer has no leave policy, childbearing must be considered by the employer to be a justification for a leave of absence for a female employee for a reasonable period of time. Following childbirth, and upon signifying her intent to return within a reasonable time, such female employee shall be reinstated to her original job or to a position of like status and pay, without loss of service credits.

(h) The employer must not specify any differences for male and female employees on the basis of sex in either mandatory or optional retirement age.

(i) Nothing in these guidelines shall be interpreted to mean that differences in capabilities for job assignments do not exist among individuals and that such distinctions may not be recognized by the employer in making specific assignments. The purpose of these guidelines is to insure that such distinctions are not based upon sex.

60-20.4 Seniority system

Where they exist, seniority lines and lists must not be based solely upon sex. Where such a separation has existed, the employer must eliminate this distinction.

60-20.5 Discriminatory wages.

(a) The employer's wages schedules must not be related to or based on the sex of the employees. (Note. The more obvious cases of discrimination exist where employees of different sexes are paid different wages on jobs which require substantially equal skill, effort and responsibility and are performed under similar working conditions.)

b) The employer may not discriminatorily restrict one sex to certain job classifications. In such a situation, the employer must take steps to make jobs available to all qualified employees in all.

classifications without regard to sex. (Example: An electrical manufacturing company may have a production division with three functional units: one (assembly) all female; another (wiring), all male; and a third (circuit boards), also all male. The highest wage attainable in the assembly unit is considerably less than that in the circuit board and wiring units. In such a case the employer must take steps to provide qualified female employees opportunity for placement in job openings in the other two units.)

(c) To avoid overlapping and conflicting administration the Director will consult with the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Administration before issuing an opinion on any matter covered by both the Equal Pay Act and Executive Order 11246, as amended by Executive Order 11375.

60-20.6 Affirmative action.

(a) The employer shall take affirmative action to recruit women to apply for those jobs where they have been previously excluded. (Note. This can be done by various methods. Examples include: (1) including in itineraries of recruiting trips women's colleges where graduates with skills desired by the employer can be found, and female students of co-educational institutions and (2) designing advertisements to indicate that women will be considered equally with men for jobs.)

(b) Women have not been typically found in significant numbers in management. In many companies management trainee programs are one of the ladders to management positions. Traditionally, few, if any, women have been admitted into these programs. An important element of affirmative action shall be a commitment to include women candidates in such programs.

(c) Distinctions based on sex may not be made in other training programs. Both sexes should have equal access to all training programs and affirmative action programs should require a demonstration by the employer that such access has been provided.

60-20.7 Effective date.

This part is effective June 9, 1970.

Signed at Washington, D. C. this 2nd day of June, 1970.

George P. Shultz

George P. Shultz
Secretary of Labor

John L. Wilks, Director
Office of Federal Contract Compliance

Appendix M

Order No. 4

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
OFFICE OF FEDERAL CONTRACT COMPLIANCE
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20210

**CHAPTER 60 -- Office of Federal Contract Compliance,
Equal Employment Opportunity, Department of Labor**

(*Reprint from* FEDERAL REGISTER, VOL. 36, NO. 234—SATURDAY, DECEMBER 4, 1971

Title 41—PUBLIC CONTRACTS AND PROPERTY MANAGEMENT

Chapter 60—Office of Federal Contract Compliance, Equal Employment Opportunity, Department of Labor

PART 60–2—AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMS

On August 31, 1971, notice of proposed rule making was published in the FEDERAL REGISTER (36 F.R. 17444) with regard to amending Chapter 60 of Title 41 of the Code of Federal Regulations by adding a new Part 60-2, dealing with affirmative action programs. Interested persons were given 30 days in which to submit written comments, suggestions, or objections regarding the proposed amendments.

Having considered all relevant material submitted, I have decided to, and do hereby amend Chapter 60 of Title 41 of the Code of Federal Regulations by adding a new Part 60–2, reading as follows:

Subpart A—General

Sec.
60–2.1 Title, purpose and scope.
60–2.2 Agency Action.

Subpart B—Required Contents of Affirmative Action Programs

60–2.10 Purpose of affirmative action program.
60–2.11 Required utilization analysis.
60–2.12 Establishment of goals and timetables.
60–2.13 Additional required ingredients of affirmative action programs.
60–2.14 Compliance status.

Subpart C—Methods of Implementing the Requirements of Subpart B

60–2.20 Development or reaffirmation of the equal employment opportunity policy.
60–2.21 Dissemination of the policy.
60–2.22 Responsibility for implementation.
60–2.23 Identification of problem areas by organization unit and job classification.
60–2.24 Development and execution of programs.
60–2.25 Internal audit and reporting systems.
60–2.26 Support of action programs.

Subpart D—Miscellaneous

60–2.30 Use of goals.
60–2.31 Preemption.
60–2.32 Supersedure.

AUTHORITY: The provisions of this Part 60–2 issued pursuant to sec. 201, Executive Order 11246 (30 F.R. 12319).

Subpart A—General

§ 60–2.1 Title, purpose and scope.

This part shall also be known as "Revised Order No. 4." and shall cover nonconstruction contractors. Section 60–1.40 of this Chapter, Affirmative Action Compliance Programs, requires that within 120 days from the commencement of a contract each prime contractor or subcontractor with 50 or more employees and a contract of $50,000 or more develop a written affirmative action compliance program for each of its establishments, and such contractors are now further required to revise existing written affirmative action programs to include the changes embodied in this order within 120 days of its publication in the FEDERAL REGISTER. A review of agency compliance surveys indicates that many contractors do not have affirmative action programs on file at the time an establishment is visited by a compliance investigator. This part details the agency review procedure and the results of a contractor's failure to develop and maintain an affirmative action program and then set forth detailed guidelines to be used by contractors and Government agencies in developing and judging these programs as well as the good faith effort required to transform the programs from paper commitments to equal employment opportunity. Subparts B and C are concerned with affirmative action plans only.

Relief for members of an "affected class" who, by virtue of past discrimination, continue to suffer the present effects of that discrimination must either be included in the contractor's affirmative action program or be embodied in a separate written "corrective action" program. An "affected class" problem must be remedied in order for a contractor to be considered in compliance. Section 60–2.2 herein pertaining to an acceptable affirmative action program is also applicable to the failure to remedy discrimination against members of an "affected class."

§ 60–2.2 Agency action.

(a) Any contractor required by § 60–1.40 of this chapter to develop an affirmative action program at each of his establishments who has not complied fully with that section is not in compliance with Executive Order 11246, as amended (30 F.R. 12319). Until such programs are developed and found to be acceptable in accordance with the standards and guidelines set forth in §§ 60–2.10 through 60–2.32, the contractor is unable to comply with the equal employment opportunity clause.

(b) If, in determining such contractor's responsibility for an award of a contract it comes to the contracting officer's attention, through sources within his agency or through the Office of Federal Contract Compliance or other Government agencies, that the contractor has not developed an acceptable affirmative action program at each of his establishments, the contracting officer shall notify the Director and declare the contractor-bidder nonresponsible unless he can otherwise affirmatively determine that the contractor is able to comply with his equal employment obligations or, unless, upon review, it is determined by the Director that substantial issues of law or fact exist as to the contractor's responsibility to the extent that a hearing is, in his sole judgment, required prior to a determination that the contractor is nonresponsible: *Provided*, That during any pre-award conferences every effort shall be made through the processes of conciliation, mediation and persuasion to develop an acceptable affirmative action program meeting the standards and guidelines set forth in §§ 60–2.10 through 60–2.32 so that, in the performance of his contract, the contractor is able to meet his equal employment obligations in accordance with the equal opportunity clause and applicable rules, regulations, and orders: *Provided further*, That when the contractor-bidder is declared nonresponsible more than once for inability to comply with the equal employment opportunity clause a notice setting a timely hearing date shall be issued concurrently with the second nonresponsibility determination in accordance with the provisions of § 60–1.26 proposing to declare such contractor-bidder ineligible for future contracts and subcontracts.

(c) Immediately upon finding that a contractor has no affirmative action program or that his program is not acceptable to the contracting officer, the compliance agency representative or the representative of the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, whichever has made such a finding, shall notify officials of the appropriate compliance agency and the Office of Federal Contract Compliance of such fact. The compliance agency shall issue a notice to the contractor giving him 30 days to show cause why enforcement proceedings under section 209(b) of Executive Order 11246, as amended, should not be instituted.

(1) If the contractor fails to show good cause for his failure or fails to remedy that failure by developing and implementing an acceptable affirmative action program within 30 days, the compliance agency, upon the approval of the

Source: U. S. Department of Labor

Director, shall immediately issue a notice of proposed cancellation or termination of existing contracts or subcontracts and debarment from future contracts and subcontracts pursuant to § 60-1.26(b), giving the contractor 10 days to request a hearing. If a request for hearing has not been received within 10 days from such notice, such contractor will be declared ineligible for future contracts and current contracts will be terminated for default. *

(2) During the "show cause" period of 30 days every effort shall be made by the compliance agency through conciliation, mediation, and persuasion to resolve the deficiencies which led to the determination of nonresponsibility. If satisfactory adjustments designed to bring the contractor, into compliance are not concluded, the compliance agency, with the prior approval of the Director, shall promptly commence formal proceedings leading to the cancellation or termination of existing contracts or subcontracts and debarment from future contracts and subcontracts under § 60-1.26(b) of this chapter.

(d) During the "show cause" period and formal proceedings, each contracting agency must continue to determine the contractor's responsibility in considering whether or not to award a new or additional contract.

Subpart B—Required Contents of Affirmative Action Programs

§ 60-2.10 Purpose of affirmative action program.

An affirmative action program is a set of specific and result-oriented procedures to which a contractor commits himself to apply every good faith effort. The objective of those procedures plus such efforts is equal employment opportunity. Procedures without effort to make them work are meaningless; and effort, undirected by specific and meaningful procedures, is inadequate. An acceptable affirmative action program must include an analysis of areas within which the contractor is deficient in the utilization of minority groups and women, and further, goals and timetables to which the contractor's good faith efforts must be directed to correct the deficiencies and, thus to increase materially the utilization of minorities and women, at all levels and in all segments of his work force where deficiencies exist.

§ 60-2.11 Required utilization analysis.

Based upon the Government's experience with compliance reviews under the Executive order programs and the contractor reporting system, minority groups are most likely to be underutilized in departments and jobs within departments that fall within the following Employer's Information Report (EEO-1) designations: officials and managers, professionals, technicians, sales workers, office and clerical and craftsmen (skilled). As categorized by the EEO-1 designations, women are likely to be underutilized in departments and jobs within departments as follows: officials and managers, professionals, technicians, sales workers (except over-the-counter sales in certain retail establishments), craftsmen (skilled and semi-skilled). Therefore, the contractor shall direct special attention to such jobs in his analysis and goal setting for minorities and women. Affirmative action programs must contain the following information:

(a) An analysis of all major job classifications at the facility, with explanation if minorities or women are currently being underutilized in any one or more job classifications (job "classification" herein meaning one or a group of jobs having similar content, wage rates and opportunities). "Underutilization" is defined as having fewer minorities or women in a particular job classification than would reasonably be expected by their availability. In making the work force analysis, the contractor shall conduct such analysis separately for minorities and women.

(1) In determining whether minorities are being underutilized in any job classification the contractor will consider at least all of the following factors:

(i) The minority population of the labor area surrounding the facility;

(ii) The size of the minority unemployment force in the labor area surrounding the facility;

(iii) The percentage of the minority work force as compared with the total work force in the immediate labor area;

(iv) The general availability of minorities having requisite skills in the immediate labor area;

(v) The availability of minorities having requisite skills in an area in which the contractor can reasonably recruit;

(vi) The availability of promotable and transferable minorities within the contractor's organization;

(vii) The existence of training institutions capable of training persons in the requisite skills; and

(viii) The degree of training which the contractor is reasonably able to undertake as a means of making all job classes available to minorities.

(2) In determining whether women are being underutilized in any job classification, the contractor will consider at least all of the following factors:

(i) The size of the female unemployment force in the labor area surrounding the facility;

(ii) The percentage of the female workforce as compared with the total workforce in the immediate labor area;

(iii) The general availability of women having requisite skills in the immediate labor area;

(iv) The availability of women having requisite skills in an area in which the contractor can reasonably recruit;

(v) The availability of women seeking employment in the labor or recruitment area of the contractor;

(vi) The availability of promotable and transferable female employees within the contractor's organization;

(vii) The existence of training institutions capable of training persons in the requisite skills; and

(viii) The degree of training which the contractor is reasonably able to undertake as a means of making all job classes available to women.

§ 60-2.12 Establishment of goals and timetables.

(a) The goals and timetables developed by the contractor should be attainable in terms of the contractor's analysis of his deficiencies and his entire affirmative action program. Thus, in establishing the size of his goals and the length of his timetables, the contractor should consider the results which could reasonably be expected from his putting forth every good faith effort to make his overall affirmative action program work. In determining levels of goals, the contractor should consider at least the factors listed in § 60-2.11.

(b) Involve personnel relations staff, department and division heads, and local and unit managers in the goal setting process.

(c) Goals should be significant, measurable and attainable.

(d) Goals should be specific for planned results, with timetables for completion.

(e) Goals may not be rigid and inflexible quotas which must be met, but must be targets reasonably attainable by means of applying every good faith effort to make all aspects of the entire affirmative action program work.

(f) In establishing timetables to meet goals and commitments, the contractor will consider the anticipated expansion, contraction and turnover of and in the work force.

(g) Goals, timetables and affirmative action commitments must be designed to correct any identifiable deficiencies.

(h) Where deficiencies exist and where numbers or percentages are relevant in developing corrective action, the contractor shall establish and set forth specific goals and timetables separately for minorities and women.

(i) Such goals and timetables, with supporting data and the analysis thereof shall be a part of the contractor's written affirmative action program and shall be maintained at each establishment of the contractor.

(j) Where the contractor has not established a goal, his written affirmative action program must specifically analyze each of the factors listed in 60-2.11 and must detail his reason for a lack of a goal.

(k) In the event it comes to the attention of the compliance agency or the Office of Federal Contract Compliance that there is a substantial disparity in the utilization of a particular minority group or men or women of a particular minority group, the compliance agency or OFCC may require separate goals and timetables for such minority group and may further require, where appropriate, such goals and timetables by sex for such group for such job classifications and organizational units specified by the compliance agency or OFCC.

---

*Time to request hearing was amended from 10 to 14 days, September 30, 1972.

(l) Support data for the required analysis and program shall be compiled and maintained as part of the contractor's affirmative action program. This data will include but not be limited to progression line charts, seniority rosters, applicant flow data, and applicant rejection ratios indicating minority and sex status.

(m) Copies of affirmative action programs and/or copies of support data shall be made available to the compliance agency or the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, at the request of either, for such purposes as may be appropriate to the fulfillment of their responsibilities under Executive Order 11246, as amended.

§ 60-2.13 Additional required ingredients of affirmative action programs.

Effective affirmative action programs shall contain, but not necessarily be limited to, the following ingredients:

(a) Development or reaffirmation of the contractor's equal employment opportunity policy in all personnel actions.

(b) Formal internal and external dissemination of the contractor's policy.

(c) Establishment of responsibilities for implementation of the contractor's affirmative action program.

(d) Identification of problem areas (deficiencies) by organizational units and job classification.

(e) Establishment of goals and objectives by organizational units and job classification, including timetables for completion.

(f) Development and execution of action oriented programs designed to eliminate problems and further designed to attain established goals and objectives.

(g) Design and implementation of internal audit and reporting systems to measure effectiveness of the total program.

(h) Compliance or personnel policies and practices with the Sex Discrimination Guidelines (41 CFR Part 60-20).

(i) Active support of local and national community action programs and community service programs, designed to improve the employment opportunities of minorities and women.

(j) Consideration of minorities and women not currently in the workforce having requisite skills who can be recruited through affirmative action measures.

§ 60-2.14 Compliance status.

No contractor's compliance status shall be judged alone by whether or not he reaches his goals and meets his timetables. Rather, each contractor's compliance posture shall be reviewed and determined by reviewing the contents of his program, the extent of his adherence to this program, and his good faith efforts to make his program work toward the realization of the program's goals within the timetables set for completion. There follows an outline of examples of procedures that contractors and Federal agencies should use as a guideline for establishing, implementing, and judging an acceptable affirmative action program.

Subpart C—Methods of Implementing the Requirements of Subpart B

§ 60-2.20 Development or reaffirmation of the equal employment opportunity policy.

(a) The contractor's policy statement should indicate the chief executive officers' attitude on the subject matter, assign overall responsibility and provide for a reporting and monitoring procedure. Specific items to be mentioned should include, but not limited to:

(1) Recruit, hire, train, and promote persons in all job classifications, without regard to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, except where sex is a bona fide occupational qualification. (The term "bona fide occupational qualification" has been construed very narrowly under the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Under Executive Order 11246 as amended and this part, this term will be construed in the same manner.)

(2) Base decisions on employment so as to further the principle of equal employment opportunity.

(3) Insure that promotion decisions are in accord with principles of equal employment opportunity by imposing only valid requirements for promotional opportunities.

(4) Insure that all personnel actions such as compensation, benefits, transfers, layoffs, return from layoff, company sponsored training, education, tuition assistance, social and recreation programs, will be administered without regard to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

§ 60-2.21 Dissemination of the policy.

(a) The contractor should disseminate his policy internally as follows:

(1) Include it in contractor's policy manual.

(2) Publicize it in company newspaper, magazine, annual report and other media.

(3) Conduct special meetings with executive, management, and supervisory personnel to explain intent of policy and individual responsibility for effective implementation, making clear the chief executive officer's attitude.

(4) Schedule special meetings with all other employees to discuss policy and explain individual employee responsibilities.

(5) Discuss the policy thoroughly in both employee orientation and management training programs.

(6) Meet with union officials to inform them of policy, and request their cooperation.

(7) Include nondiscrimination clauses in all union agreements, and review all contractual provisions to ensure they are nondiscriminatory.

(8) Publish articles covering EEO programs, progress reports, promotions, etc., of minority and female employees, in company publications.

(9) Post the policy on company bulletin boards.

(10) When employees are featured in product or consumer advertising, employee handbooks or similar publications both minority and nonminority, men and women should be pictured.

(11) Communicate to employees the existence of the contractors affirmative action program and make available such elements of his program as will enable such employees to know of and avail themselves of its benefits.

(b) The contractor should disseminate his policy externally as follows:

(1) Inform all recruiting sources verbally and in writing of company policy, stipulating that these sources actively recruit and refer minorities and women for all positions listed.

(2) Incorporate the Equal Opportunity clause in all purchase orders, leases, contracts, etc., covered by Executive Order 11246, as amended, and its implementing regulations.

(3) Notify minority and women's organizations, community agencies, community leaders, secondary schools and colleges, of company policy, preferably in writing.

(4) Communicate to prospective employees the existence of the contractor's affirmative action program and make available such elements of his program as will enable such prospective employees to know of and avail themselves of its benefits.

(5) When employees are pictured in consumer or help wanted advertising, both minorities and nonminority men and women should be shown.

(6) Send written notification of company policy to all subcontractors, vendors and suppliers requesting appropriate action on their part.

§ 60-2.22 Responsibility for implementation.

(a) An executive of the contractor should be appointed as director or manager of company Equal Opportunity Programs. Depending upon the size and geographical alignment of the company, this may be his or her sole responsibility. He or she should be given the necessary top management support and staffing to execute the assignment. His or her identity should appear on all internal and external communications on the company's Equal Opportunity Programs. His or her responsibilities should include, but not necessarily be limited to:

(1) Developing policy statements, affirmative action programs, internal and external communication techniques.

(2) Assisting in the identification of problem areas.

(3) Assisting line management in arriving at solutions to problems.

(4) Designing and implementing audit and reporting systems that will:

(i) Measure effectiveness of the contractor's programs.

(ii) Indicate need for remedial action.

(iii) Determine the degree to which the contractor's goals and objectives have been attained.

(5) Serve as liaison between the contractor and enforcement agencies.

(6) Serve as liaison between the contractor and minority organizations, women's organizations and community action groups concerned with employment opportunities of minorities and women.

(7) Keep management informed of latest developments in the entire equal opportunity area.

(b) Line responsibilities should include, but not be limited to, the following:

(1) Assistance in the identification of problem areas and establishment of local and unit goals and objectives.

(2) Active involvement with local minority organizations, women's organizations, community action groups and community service programs.

(3) Periodic audit of training programs, hiring and promotion patterns to remove impediments to the attainment of goals and objectives.

(4) Regular discussions with local managers, supervisors and employees to be certain the contractor's policies are being followed.

(5) Review of the qualifications of all employees to insure that minorities and women are given full opportunities for transfers and promotions.

(6) Career counseling for all employees.

(7) Periodic audit to insure that each location is in compliance in area such as:

(i) Posters are properly displayed.

(ii) All facilities, including company housing, which the contractor maintains for the use and benefit of his employees, are in fact desegregated, both in policy and use. If the contractor provides facilities such as dormitories, locker rooms and rest rooms, they must be comparable for both sexes.

(iii) Minority and female employees are afforded a full opportunity and are encouraged to participate in all company sponsored educational, training, recreational and social activities.

(8) Supervisors should be made to understand that their work performance is being evaluated on the basis of their equal employment opportunity efforts and results, as well as other criteria.

(9) It shall be a responsibility of supervisors to take actions to prevent harassment of employees placed through affirmative action efforts.

§ 60-2.23 Identification of problem areas by organizational units and job classifications.

, (a) An in-depth analysis of the following should be made, paying particular attention to trainees and those categories listed in § 60-2.11(d).

(1) Composition of the work force by minority group status and sex.

(2) Composition of applicant flow by minority group status and sex.

(3) The total selection process including position descriptions, position titles, worker specifications, application forms, interview procedures, test administration, test validity, referral procedures, final selection process, and similar factors.

(4) Transfer and promotion practices.

(5) Facilities, company sponsored recreation and social events, and special programs such as educational assistance.

(6) Seniority practices and seniority provisions of union contracts.

(7) Apprenticeship programs.

(8) All company training programs, formal and informal.

(9) Work force attitude.

(10) Technical phases of compliance, such as poster and notification to labor unions, retention of applications, notification to subcontractors, etc.

(b) If any of the following items are found in the analysis, special corrective action should be appropriate.

(1) An "underutilization" of minorities or women in specific work classifications.

(2) Lateral and/or vertical movement of minority or female employees occuring at a lesser rate (compared to work force mix) than that of nonminority or male employees.

(3) The selection process eliminates a significantly higher percentage of minorities or women than nonminorities or men.

(4) Application and related preemployment forms not in compliance with Federal legislation.

(5) Position descriptions inaccurate in relation to actual functions and duties.

(6) Tests and other selection techniques not validated as required by the OFCC Order on Employee Testing and other Selection Procedures.

(7) Test forms not validated by location, work performance and inclusion of minorities and women in sample.

(8) Referral ratio of minorities or women to the hiring supervisor or manager indicates a significantly higher percentage are being rejected as compared to nonminority and male applicants.

(9) Minorities or women are excluded from or are not participating in company sponsored activities or programs.

(10) De facto segregation still exists at some facilities.

(11) Seniority provisions contribute to overt or inadvertent discrimination, i.e., a disparity by minority group status or sex exists between length of service and types of job held.

(12) Nonsupport of company policy by managers, supervisors or employees.

(13) Minorities or women underutilized or significantly underrepresented in training or career improvement programs.

(14) No formal techniques established for evaluating effectiveness of EEO programs.

(15) Lack of access to suitable housing inhibits recruitment efforts and employment of qualified minorities.

(16) Lack of suitable transportation (public or private) to the work place inhibits minority employment.

(17) Labor unions and subcontractors not notified of their responsibilities.

(13) Purchase orders do not contain EEO clause.

(19) Posters not on display.

§ 60-2.24 Development and execution of programs.

(a) The contractor should conduct detailed analyses of position descriptions to insure that they accurately reflect position functions, and are consistent for the same position from one location to another.

(b) The contractor should validate worker specifications by division, department, location or other organizational unit and by job category using job performance criteria. Special attention should be given to academic, experience and skill requirements to insure that the requirements in themselves do not constitute inadvertent discrimination. Specifications should be consistent for the same job classification in all locations and should be free from bias as regards to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, except where sex is a bona fide occupational qualification. Where requirements screen out a disproportionate number of minorities or women such requirements should be professionally validated to job performance.

(c) Approved position descriptions and worker specifications, when used by the contractor, should be made available to all members of management involved in the recruiting, screening, selection, and promotion process. Copies should also be distributed to all recruiting sources.

(d) The contractor should evaluate the total selection process to insure freedom from bias and, thus, aid the attainment of goals and objectives.

(1) All personnel involved in the recruiting, screening, selection, promotion, disciplinary, and related processes should be carefully selected and trained to insure elimination of bias in all personnel actions.

(2) The contractor shall observe the requirements of the OFCC Order pertaining to the validation of employee tests and other selection procedures.

(3) Selection techniques other than tests may also be improperly used so as to have the effect of discriminating against minority groups and women. Such techniques include but are not restricted to, unscored interviews, unscored or casual application forms, arrest records, credit checks, considerations of marital status or dependency or minor children. Where there exist data suggesting that such unfair discrimination or exclusion of minorities or women exists, the contractor should analyze his unscored procedures and eliminate them if they are not objectively valid.

(e) Suggested techniques to improve recruitment and increase the flow of minority or female applicants follow:

(1) Certain organizations such as the Urban League, Job Corps, Equal Opportunity Programs, Inc., Concentrated Employment Programs, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Secondary Schools, Colleges, and City Colleges with high minority enrollment, the State Employment Service, specialized employment agencies, Aspira, LULAC, SER, the G.I. Forum, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico are normally prepared to refer minority applicants. Organizations prepared to refer women with specific skills are: National Organization for Women, Welfare Rights Organizations, Women's Equity Action League, Talent Bank from Business and Professional Women (including 26 women's organizations), Professional Women's Caucus, Intercollegiate Association of University Women, Negro Women's sororities and service

groups such as Delta Sigma Theta, Alpha Kappa Alpha, and Zeta Phi Beta; National Council of Negro Women, American Association of University Women, YWCA, and sectarian groups such as Jewish Women's Groups, Catholic Women's Groups and Protestant Women's Groups, and women's colleges. In addition, community leaders as individuals shall be added to recruiting sources.

(2) Formal briefing sessions should be held, preferably on company premises, with representatives from these recruiting sources. Plant tours, presentations by minority and female employees, clear and concise explanations of current and future job openings, position descriptions, worker specifications, explanations of the company's selection process, and recruiting literature should be an integral part of the briefings. Formal arrangements should be made for referral of applicants, followup with sources, and feedback on disposition of applicants.

(3) Minority and female employees, using procedures similar to subparagraph (2) of this paragraph, should be actively encouraged to refer applicants.

(4) A special effort should be made to include minorities and women on the Personnel Relations staff.

(5) Minority and female employees should be made available for participation in Career Days, Youth Motivation Programs, and related activities in their communities.

(6) Active participation in "Job Fairs" is desirable. Company representatives so participating should be given authority to make on-the-spot commitments.

(7) Active recruiting programs should be carried out at secondary schools, junior colleges, and colleges with predominant minority or female enrollments.

(8) Recruiting efforts at all schools should incorporate special efforts to reach minorities and women.

(9) Special employment programs should be undertaken whenever possible. Some possible programs are:

(i) Technical and nontechnical co-op programs with predominately Negro and women's colleges.

(ii) "After school" and/or work-study jobs for minority youths, male and females.

(iii) Summer jobs for underprivileged youth, male and female.

(iv) Summer work-study programs for male and female faculty members of the predominantly minority schools and colleges.

(v) Motivation, training and employment programs for the hard-core unemployed, male and female.

(10) When recruiting brochures pictorially present work situations, the minority and female members of the work force should be included, especially when such brochures are used in school and career programs.

(11) Help wanted advertising should be expanded to include the minority news media and women's interest media on a regular basis.

(f) The contractor should insure that minority and female employees are given equal opportunity for promotion. Suggestions for achieving this result include:

(1) Post or otherwise announce promotional opportunities.

(2) Make an inventory of current minority and female employees to determine academic, skill and experience level of individual employees.

(3) Initiate necessary remedial, job training and workstudy programs.

(4) Develop and implement formal employee evaluation programs.

(5) Make certain "worker specifications" have been validated on job performance related criteria. (Neither minority nor female employees should be required to possess higher qualifications than those of the lowest qualified incumbent.)

(6) When apparently qualified minority or female employees are passed over for upgrading, require supervisory personnel to submit written justification.

(7) Establish formal career counseling programs to include attitude development, education aid, job rotation, buddy system and similar programs.

(8) Review seniority practices and seniority clauses in union contracts to insure such practices or clauses are nondiscriminatory and do not have a discriminatory effect.

(g) Make certain facilities and company-sponsored social and recreation activities are desegregated. Actively encourage all employees to participate.

(h) Encourage child care, housing and transportation programs appropriately designed to improve the employment opportunities for minorities and women.

§ 60–2.25 Internal audit and reporting systems.

(a) The contractor should monitor records of referrals, placements, transfers, promotions and terminations at all levels to insure nondiscriminatory policy is carried out.

(b) The contractor should require formal reports from unit managers on a schedule basis as to degree to which corporate or unit goals are attained and timetables met.

(c) The contractor should review report results with all levels of management.

(d) The contractor should advise top management of program effectiveness and submit recommendations to improve unsatisfactory performance.

§ 60–2.26 Support of action programs.

(a) The contractor should appoint key members of management to serve on Merit Employment Councils, Community Relations Boards and similar organizations.

(b) The contractor should encourage minority and female employees to participate actively in National Alliance of Businessmen programs for youth motivation.

(c) The contractor should support Vocational Guidance Institutes, Vestibule Training Programs and similar activities.

(d) The contractor should assist secondary schools and colleges in programs designed to enable minority and female graduates of these institutions to compete in the open employment market on a more equitable basis.

(e) The contractor should publicize achievements of minority and female employees in local and minority news media.

(f) The contractor should support programs developed by such organizations as National Alliance of Businessmen, the Urban Coalition and other organizations concerned with employment opportunities for minorities or women.

Subpart D—Miscellaneous

§ 60–2.30 Use of goals.

The purpose of a contractor's establishment and use of goals is to insure that he meet his affirmative action obligation. It is not intended and should not be used to discriminate against any applicant or employee because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

§ 60–2.31 Preemption.

To the extent that any State or local laws, regulations or ordinances, including those which grant special benefits to persons on account of sex, are in conflict with Executive Order 11246, as amended, or with the requirements of this part, we will regard them as preempted under the Executive order.

§ 60–2.32 Supersedure.

All orders, instructions, regulations, and memoranda of the Secretary of Labor, other officials of the Department of Labor and contracting agencies are hereby superseded to the extent that they are inconsistent herewith, including a previous "Order No. 4" from this Office dated January 30, 1970. Nothing in this part is intended to amend 41 CFR 60–3 published in the FEDERAL REGISTER on October 2, 1971 or Employee Testing and Other Selection Procedures or 41 CFR 60–20 on Sex Discrimination Guidelines.

Effective date. This part shall become effective on the date of its publication in the FEDERAL REGISTER (12–4–71).

Signed at Washington, D.C., this 1st day of December 1971.

J. D. HODGSON,
Secretary of Labor.

HORACE E. MENASCO,
Acting Assistant Secretary for Employment Standards.

JOHN L. WILKS,
Director, Office of Federal Contract Compliance.

[FR Doc.71–17700 Filed 12–3–71;8:51 am]

Appendix N

Recruiting Aids - for Affirmative Action

RECRUITING MINORITY WOMEN

To help universities and colleges find qualified minority women -- Indian, Spanish-surnamed, Asian- and Afro-American -- we have compiled the following list of resources. Included are surveys and studies regarding minorities from which data on minority women can be gleaned; a list of registries; a variety of organizations and government offices that can be of help; and a list of minority publications that will list job openings.

General Information: Many of the professional associations included in the "Listing of Women's Caucuses and Committees in Professional Associations" (distributed in October 1972 by the Project) also have black and/or minority caucuses and committees. For details regarding such groups and any referral or job placement services offered, write to the professional organization directly.

I. STUDIES and SURVEYS

AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION SURVEY. The American Bar Association made a survey in 1969-70 which found that blacks were 2.7% of the total law school enrollment, and of the female lawyers and judges in the country, 2.3% are black. For a free summary of the survey, write The American Bar Association, 1155 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637.

DIRECTORY OF AFRO-AMERICAN RESOURCES. Lists, describes and cross-indexes professional associations of blacks, disciplinary committees concerned with blacks, data sources, and study centers. Available from Order Department, R. R. Bowker Company, P. O. Box 1807, Ann Arbor, Michigan 41806. Cost: $19.95.

DIRECTORY OF MINORITY COLLEGE GRADUATES 1971-72. Prepared by the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor, this directory identifies black, Spanish-surnamed, native American and white ethnic groups by sex. No summaries or statistics are given by field or degree level. Available from the Government Printing Office for $8.00.

DIRECTORY OF SPANISH-SURNAMED AND NATIVE AMERICANS IN SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING. Dr. Joseph V. Martinez compiled this directory for the Foundation for Promoting Advanced Studies. For a copy, write Dr. Joseph Martinez, 464 Furnace Road, Ontario, New York 14519. A donation of $15.00 is requested.

Source: Association of American Colleges

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY FOR MINORITY GROUP COLLEGE GRADUATES: LOCATING, RECRUITING, EMPLOYING. A complete guide to recruiting minority group members by Robert Calvert, Jr., former University of California Placement Director. Available from Garrett Park Press, Garrett Park, Maryland 20766, $5.95 with postage included.

HANDBOOK FOR RECRUITING AT THE TRADITIONALLY BLACK COLLEGES. For employers interested in finding and hiring blacks, this book contains profiles of 83 black four-year colleges and information on their students. Edited by Andre G. Beaumont, it is available from College Placement Services, Inc., P. O. Box 2322, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18001, for $5.50.

SURVEY OF BLACK AMERICAN DOCTORATES. This survey found that less than 1% of the doctorates in the nation were held by blacks, and 80% of these were held by black men. For a free summary of the survey, write to The Ford Foundation, Office for Special Projects, 320 East 43rd Street, New York, New York 10017.

II. REGISTRIES

(Also see list of organizations since many of them maintain registries.)

BLACK WOMEN EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM. An Atlanta-based operation which helps employers find trained and/or qualified black women for jobs. There is no fee for the woman placed; small fee for institution/employer. For more information write Black Women Employment Program, Southern Regional Council, 52 Fairlie Street, N. W., Atlanta, Georgia 30303.

COOPERATIVE COLLEGE REGISTRY. A non-profit operation that serves its member institutions by locating candidates for job openings from resumés kept on file. (Membership is $100 for colleges and universities; individuals are charged $10 to register.) CCR cannot supply search committees or administrators with lists of names of minority women, but can send resumés of those women who have registered and who fit qualifications designated by the employer. For more information write to Cooperative College Registry, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D. C. 20036, (202) 223-2807.

HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION REFERRAL SERVICES. A new "equal opportunity service" founded and supported by thirteen higher education administration associations. On a fee basis, candidates are referred to institutions seeking qualified professional administrative and support staff in areas related to business management. HEARS is interested in building an extensive minority talent bank. Registration fee for individuals is $25. For more information write HEARS, Suite 510, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D. C. 20036, (202) 296-2347.

NATIONAL SKILLS BANK. A talent bank that helps place minority persons in professional jobs. Write: Ms. Ruth Allan King, Placement Office, National Skills Bank, 477 Madison Avenue, 18th Floor, New York, New York 10022.

III. ORGANIZATIONS

AFRICAN AMERICAN SCHOLARS' COUNCIL. Although the main function of this agency is research, it does engage in some informal job placement and referral. Write: African American Scholars' Council, 1150 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.

AMERICANS FOR INDIAN OPPORTUNITY. Has a free job referral and placement service. For more information write: Americans for Indian Opportunity, 1820 Jefferson Place, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS. A federal agency which has information on native American including data on degrees attained. Write: Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1951 Constitution Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C., or Bureau of Indian Affairs--Higher Education, 5301 Central Avenue, N.W., Albuquerque, New Mexico 87108.

CABINET COMMITTEE ON OPPORTUNITY FOR THE SPANISH-SPEAKING. Makes job referrals and also has information on Spanish-speaking doctorate holders. Write: Cabinet Committee on Opportunity for the Spanish-Speaking, 1707 H Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

CONFERENCE OF MINORITY PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS. COMPA has a talent bank of administrators in many varied fields. Write: Ms. Loretta Avent, COMPA, 1225 Connecticut Avenue, Suite 300, Washington, D. C. 20036.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF COLORED PEOPLE. A well-known civil rights organization, the NAACP does not have a formal job placement service or talent bank. However, local branches of NAACP very often are able to recommend highly qualified candidates. The national office is at 1790 Broadway, New York, New York 10019.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR PUERTO RICAN CIVIL RIGHTS. Has an informal placement and job referral service for all Spanish-speaking persons. Write Mr. Antonio Riva, Director, NAPRCR, 175 116th Street, New York, New York 10029.

PUERTO RICAN RESEARCH AND RESOURCES CENTER. Makes job referrals and offers job placement; and building a talent bank for women. Write to Mrs. Anna Ortiz, Puerto Rican Research and Resources Center, 1519 Connecticut Avenue, Washington, D. C. 20036.

IV. WOMEN'S GROUPS

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE WOMEN. Job placement and/or referral on an informal basis. National president of this black women's organization is Mrs. Odessa W. Farrell, 4620 Kossuth Avenue, St. Louis, Missouri.

NORTH AMERICAN INDIAN WOMEN'S ASSOCIATION. This group has six major regions across the country. For more information and guidance on finding Indian professional women, write: Mrs. James M. Cox, 3201 Shadybrook, Midwest City, Oklahoma 73110.

ZETA PHI BETA. A black social sorority which has chapters on most black college campuses. The national headquarters can respond to some requests for candidates. Write: Ms. Goldie Baldwin, Executive Secretary, 1734 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20009.

V. PUBLICATIONS

The following publications reach a large number of minority professionals. All publications accept advertising of job openings. Unless otherwise noted, there is no fee involved.

THE AFRO-AMERICAN, a bi-weekly newspaper which is published and distributed in Baltimore, Maryland; Newark, New Jersey; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and Richmond, Virginia. Write to the home office, The Afro-American, 628 N. Eutaw, Baltimore, Maryland 21201, for advertising rates.

BLACK SCHOLAR, an academic journal, published monthly, has a section in each issue called "Black Scholar Classified." Write Black Scholar, Box 908, Sausalito, California 94965.

JOURNAL, published by the National Medical Association, the national organization of black physicians. This organization also publishes a newsletter. Job openings are accepted for both publications. Write National Medical Association, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

SENTINEL, published monthly by the Nat onal Congress of American Indians. Contact: Mr. John Tiger, 1346 Connecticut Avenue, Room 312, Washington, D. C. 20036.

RECRUITING AIDS

ROSTERS:

Women Physicists. Available for $5.00 from: American Institute of Physics Placement Service, 335 West 45th Street, New York, New York 10017. Women physicists wishing to be on roster should write E. Baranger, Committee on the Status of Women in Physics, Room 6-405, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139.

Women Psychologists. The American Psychological Association roster of women psychologists, based on a 1971 survey of women APA members, is available from Dr. Tena Cummings, American Psychological Association, 1200 17th Street, Washington, D. C. 20036.

Women Historians. Available from: American Historical Association, 400 A Street, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20003. ($5.00 contribution welcomed.) Women wishing to be on roster should contact AHA at the above address.

Women Librarians. The American Library Association's Social Responsibilities Task Force on Women is compiling a roster of women qualified for administrative and specialized library positions. Write: Margaret Myers, Graduate School of Library Service, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903.

Women Lawyers. The American Bar Association's Women's Rights Unit is compiling a state-by-state roster of women lawyers. Write: Dr. Lee Ellen Ford, 336 Hickory Street, Butler, Indiana 46721.

Women Theologians. Elizabeth Dempster, Interim Director, Boston Theological Institute, Women's Placement Service, 45 Francis Avenue, Cambridge, Mass. 02138.

Women Engineers, Scientists, Medical and Paramedical Specialists. Compiled by the Biophysical Society and the Association of Women in Science, this registry includes over 5,000 women. Write: Dr. Judith G. Pool, Co-President, Association of Women in Science, Stanford Medical School, Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305.

DIRECTORY OF WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS AND LEADERS

A comprehensive directory, Women's Organizations and Leaders -- 1973, is published by Today Publications. This provides an up-to-date listing of the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of relevant organizations and lists individuals recognized as leaders in the women's movement. This directory is available for $25.00 from Today Publications, National Press Building, Washington, D.C. 20004.

RESOURCE AND REFERRAL CENTER FOR WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Because there are so few women in high-level administrative and academic positions in colleges and universities, The Ford Foundation has given a grant of $50,000 to establish a Regional Resource Center for Women in Higher Education in New England. The Resource Center, located at Brown University, will be coordinated by Dr. Lily Hornig.

The Center will develop an informal placement and referral service, prepare position papers on non-discriminatory personnel policies, meet with college presidents to discuss the status of women, and plan a regional conference of women and faculty administrators.

For further information write Dr. Hornig at the Higher Education Resource Center, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island 02912.

YES, THERE ARE WOMEN ENGINEERS

The Society of Women Engineers has begun a Career Information Clearinghouse to help link up members seeking jobs and employers looking for women engineers. For further information contact: SWE, 345 East 47th Street, New York, New York 10017. (Telephone: 212-752-6800, ext. 551)

Also, a recent ENGINEERING MANPOWER BULLETIN, by John Alden, Women in Engineering, includes data on women engineering graduates, and their distribution by kind of work. For a copy, sent $1.50 to Engineering Manpower Commission, 345 East 47th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017. A detailed directory (Engineering and Technical Enrollments, Fall 1971) is available for $20.00 from the same address.

MLA "JOB OPPORTUNITIES NEWSLETTER"

Sponsored by the Women's Caucus of the Modern Language Association, this newsletter lists job openings in English, Modern Foreign Langyages (post-high school), women's studies, administration and other work or study possibilities for academics. Send $1.00 to Gloria DeSole, Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, New York 12866.

COOPERATIVE COLLEGE REGISTRY

An employment registry of women and minorities is available to educational institutions from the Cooperative College Registry, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D. C. 20036. For further information contact David Lowdermilk, Director, at the above address or call (202)223-2807.

WOMEN'S NEWSLETTERS ACCEPT ADS

Two widely read women's newsletters, Women Today and the Spokeswoman, now run "Help Wanted" ads. Women Today (published by Today Publications, National Press Building, Washington, D. C. 20004) has listed free of charge top positions in in educational institutions, private industry and government. The Spokeswoman (published by Ms. Susan Davis, 5464 South Shore Drive, Chicago, Illinois 60515) has a paid "Help Wanted" section for professional and managerial jobs.

Subscription to Women Today (biweekly) is $15.00 a year and $25 for two years. Subscription to the Spokeswoman is $7.00 a year for individuals and $12.00 a year for institutions.

RECRUITING AIDS

ROSTERS:

Women Architects. 1. The Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture is compiling a list of female and minority members interested in teaching in schools of architecture. For further information about this or to have your name included on this list, write: ACSA, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036. 2. The Alliance of Women in Architecture is gathering the names and addresses of every woman in the U. S. who is currently or who has ever been a student of architecture. For information, write: AWA, 18 E. 13th Street, New York, New York 10003.

Women Engineers, Scientists, Medical and Paramedical Specialists. Compiled by the Biophysical Society and the Association of Women in Science, this registry includes over 5,000 women. For information, write: Dr. Marion Webster, 2226 Broadbranch Terrace, Washington, D. C. 20008.

Women Immunologists. The American Association of Immunologists has a list of women members. For information write: Dr. Helen C. Rauch (Chairperson of the Committee on the Status of Women), Department of Medical Microbiology, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, California 94305.

Women Political Scientists. The American Political Science Association has a roster of women. Single copies are available free from: APSA, (Attn: Committee on the Status of Women in the Profession), 1527 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Women in Religion. A registry of Women in Religious Studies, containing approximately 200 names of women holding or seeking positions in the academic field of religious studies, was compiled by the Women's Caucus -- Religious Studies. Available for $1.00 from: Women's Caucus -- Religious Studies, Box 6309, Station B, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee 37235.

STATEWIDE DIRECTORY OF WOMEN IN UTAH

The Women's Resource Center at the University of Utah has recently published a "Directory of Women in Utah Higher Education." The roster is intended as a basis for the recruitment of women for academic positions. For a copy send $3.50 to: Women's Resource Center, 2197 Annex, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112.

CHRONICLE OF HIGHER EDUCATION LISTS JOBS

The Chronicle of Higher Education accepts paid advertisements for positions in higher education. Notices for The Chronicle's "Bulletin Board" (which includes "Positions Wanted" and "Positions Available") cost 25¢ a word or $15 an inch and may be submitted by mail or telephone. For further information write: "Bulletin Board," The Chronicle of Higher Education, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C. 20036, or call (202) 667-3344.

ADS ACCEPTED IN WOMEN SCIENTISTS NEWSLETTER

The Newsletter of the Association of Women in Science (published quarterly) has a section on "Employment Information" (which includes both "Positions Wanted" and "Positions Available"). Announcements of employment information should be sent to: Dr. Susan G. Langreth, Rockefeller University, New York, New York 10021.

Appendix O

Equal Rights: Question and Answer

1. Why is the Equal Rights Amendment for Women necessary?

It is necessary to give a woman a legal status which was not defined by the United States Constitution as it was framed and adopted under the concept of English Common Law which does not regard women as legal persons or entities. The 14th Amendment which guarantees "equal protection of the laws" did not fully give a woman equal status even though a Supreme Court decision in 1971 struck down a law discriminating against women, as it did not overrule earlier decisions upholding sex discrimination cases in other laws. Therefore, the burden is on each woman plaintiff to prove her case. The Equal Rights Amendment would give every man and woman freedom from sex discrimination without the necessity of going to court case by case, which is expensive and time-consuming. Also, many a faint-hearted woman would not take her case to court.

2. Why does a woman need a legal status?

A legal status is necessary so that a woman will be given equal treatment and consideration in all areas of life as a man. For instance, equal work for equal pay; the right to work overtime; the right to serve on juries; the right to receive the same penalties as males when violating the laws, whereas some state laws now have greater penalties for females than for males; the right to establish businesses, become guarantors, enter into contracts and administer estates, etc.

3. What does the legal status of women have to do with the social issues of women?

These social issues must not be confused with the Equal Rights Amendment. The Equal Rights Amendment and social issues seem to be one, but most of the social issues in the limelight today have nothing to do with the Equal Rights Amendment and the legal status of women, as they can be attained without the Equal Rights Amendment. The press has helped to equate the Equal Rights Amendment with the Lib Movement and the social issues, but the Equal Rights Amendment is a legal issue basically and only later a social issue in a much smaller degree. Men and women will have the same relationship as they now have and as they decide on an individual basis.

4. Does the Equal Rights Amendment affect the housewife-homemaker?

Only as it affects all women, in that, each woman may choose her own way of life — homemaker or wage earner. Housewives need not fear that their security is being taken away from them. The Equal Rights Amendment does not take away the enforceable laws of support. In fact, there are many inadequate support laws now, and these laws would be improved to safeguard the housewife-homemaker.

5. How does the Equal Rights Amendment affect alimony and child-support laws?

The Equal Rights Amendment will only change the present laws to

By Elizabeth L. Chittick, National Chairman, National Woman's Party, 144 Constitution Ave., N.E., Washington, D.C. 20002.

Source: Women Lawyer's Journal, 1973

this power is exercised. Selective Draft Law Cases, 245 U.S. 360 (1918) *Lichter v U.S.*, 334 U.S. 742 (1948).

Every person is subject to be called for military duty in the public safety. It is for Congress to say when, who, and to what extent and how they shall be selected. *Warren v U.S.* 177 F. 2d 596 (1949).

The Equal Rights Amendment does not affect this power, but would give women the right to volunteer for service, and would also give her some of the benefits now being received by men, such as, GI educational benefits; job preferences in and out of Government work; free food, housing, insurance, training and leadership experience.

The Equal Rights Amendment would draft men and women alike, but as men now receive exemptions and deferments, so would women. They could exempt parents who are required to stay with children; either or both parents with small children, physical disabilities, and as conscientious objectors, and the many other reasons men now receive to be exempted. Men and women would be treated alike on the exemptions and deferments and receive the same benefits, which are many.

President Nixon has said there would be a volunteer army by 1973, and if men and women are drafted under the Equal Rights Amendment, which would be the case, as they would be treated equally, this volunteer army could be a reality, possibly sooner than the Equal Rights Amendment would be in effect.

9. Will women be assigned combat duty?

Every man is not assigned combat duty, so there is no reason to believe women will be. Most men are assigned to civilian type jobs, and many men are needed to fill these jobs. The University of Kansas Commission on the Status of Women in March 1971 reported: "Studies have shown that almost nine out of ten jobs done by servicemen are civilian jobs. Therefore, many men and women are needed to serve their country in capacities which do not require combat training. Again, if men and women are accepted and drafted into the armed services on an equal basis, they could be assigned to the duties they are most capable of doing and also willing, regardless of sex. As women would receive the same exemptions and deferments that Congress has the power to give to men, it seems improbable that anyone, man or woman, not desiring to serve (as in the case of some men now) would serve in a capacity they didn't wish to."

The Intercollegiate Association of Women Students, a body of young women numbering approximately 250,000, at its March 1971 Convention passed a Resolution that given whatever Selective Service System prevailing they would support the involvement of women equally with men in the responsibilities.

10. How does the Equal Rights Amendment affect admittance of women to public colleges?

It will open the doors for women. Admission will have to be based on ability and not on basis of sex. Young women from poor families will be especially benefited, and Graduate Schools and the education profession will offer many more opportunities for women. At present, there is great discrimination in this area.

include men under the same conditions as women (as they are now in more than one-third of the states).

The Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women reported that rather than depriving women and children of support, the Equal Rights Amendment "could very well result in greater rights," as "women's legal rights to support by their husbands, and to support of their children in cases of divorce or separation "are much more limited than is generally known and enforcement is very inadequate."

"The Equal Rights Amendment would not make alimony unconstitutional but would require a fair allocation of it on a case-by-case basis. In the great bulk of cases, women would still receive alimony or support payments." (Senator Birch Bayh of Indiana, in 1971)

In the end, the welfare of the child would be the criterion in awarding custody of the child in a court contested case (as it is now in many states) and that mothers be responsible for child support *only within their means.* A homemaker with no means would have complete protection under this concept.

6. How does the Equal Rights Amendment affect Property Laws?

The Equal Rights Amendment would invalidate state laws which treat men and women differently in respect to their property rights and, in particular, married women. A married woman will be able to enter into contracts, run her own business, manage her own property, become a guarantor, and a woman would be treated equally as an administrator of an estate. In community property states, no one sex would have arbitrary pr ference, and the division and manage ment of property would be on th basis of expertise and not on sex.

7. What will happen to the present prote tive laws for women?

Protective laws that discriminat against a woman will be invalidate as the Equal Rights Amendment wi require that the Federal Governme and all State and local governmen must treat each person, man o woman, as an individual.

The laws which were meant to pro tect a woman are in this time era di criminating against a woman an especially so since many women toda are heads of household and the so support of children. Many women ar physically stronger than some me and require no protective law. A strength and weakness seem to hav been the criterion for the protecti laws, let each person, man or woma be protected according to eac individual's physical strength. There fore, the laws would be changed t include men and women and me would also receive any protection th law would give on an individual bas and not on sex. Protective legislatio would be made to cover hazardou occupations, health, safety and hou of work without regard to sex.

8. Will women be drafted?

Congress already has the power t draft women, if necessary. The U Constitution gives to the Congress t power "To raise and support arm .... To provide and maintain a nav There were no restrictions or limi tions on this "great power"; and t Supreme Court has held that it w not even review the manner in whi

11. How does the Equal Rights Amendment affect the Jury laws?

The Equal Rights Amendment would make all women eligible for jury duty on the same basis as a man, and they would be "relieved" on the same basis as a man, and not because they were women.

12. How does the Equal Rights Amendment affect Criminal laws and especially rape?

Laws which give a longer sentence to a woman than a man will be invalidated.

"The Equal Rights Amendment will not invalidate laws which punish rape, for such laws are designed to protect women in a way that they are uniformly distinct from men." (Senate Report 92-689).

Laws based on a physical characteristic of one sex (whether criminal-- prohibiting rape, or civil governing medical payments for child-birth will continue to be valid).

13. How does the Equal Rights Amendment affect the privacy of women – sleeping quarters and bathroom facilities?

Not at all. Senate Report 92-689 stated — under two legal principles, the power of the state to regulate cohabitation, and sexual relations of unmarried persons; and the constitutional right of privacy (enunciated by the Supreme Court in 1965).

These principles would permit separate sleeping, bathing and toilet facilities in public institutions such as colleges, prisons and military barracks.

14. How does the Equal Rights Amendment affect States Rights?

The Equal Rights Amendment does not change the status of State Rights except to make their laws app
equally to men and women.

15. Is the Equal Rights Amendment
"Lib" movement?

The Liberation movements starte
sometime in 1960 and other organiza
tions (the more aggressive ones) late
— about 1968. The Equal Righ
Amendment was authored, and spo
sored for 49 years by the Nation
Woman's Party, which could never b
called a "Lib" movement. Their so
purpose and dedication over 49 year
and their sole activity, was to he
women attain a legal status —
become a person — by an Amend
ment to the U.S. Constitution — pa
sage of the Equal Rights Amendmen

16. What is the National Woman
Party?

The National Woman's Party wa
founded in 1913 and spearheaded th
woman's suffrage movement. Aft
the passage of the Suffrage Act i
1920, these valiant and courageou
women, under the leadership of Ali
Paul, Founder and honorary cha
man of this Party, introduced in Co
gress in 1923 the first Equal Righ
Amendment bill ever proposed f
women. For 49 years, this Party ha
introduced this Amendment i
Congress, obtaining more and mo
sponsors each year. Over the yea
they diligently kept the fires burni
for this Amendment, educating oth
organizations, publishing bulleti
and maintaining an instant inform
tion bureau where anyone intereste
in the Equal Rights Amendme
could obtain the exact status of
progress and sponsors day or nig
The National Woman's Party is a c
versative organization and sough
publicity over the years, but the Equ
Rights Amendment truly belongs
the National Woman's Party.

SOURCE REFERENCES ON THE EQUAL RIGHTS AMENDMENT

The Equal Rights Amendment: "Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex."

History: The ERA was first introduced in Congress in 1923 by the National Woman's party, and was introduced in every succeeding Congress for 49 years before its approval, on March 22, 1972.

Passed by the House, 91st Congress, on August 10, 1971, by vote of 350-15 after being brought up on a Discharge Petition initiated by Rep. Martha W. Griffiths; but died in the Senate of the 91st without final vote.

Passed by the House, 92nd Congress, Oct. 12, 1971, as H.J. Res 208, after defeating crippling amendments, by vote of 354-23; passed by the Senate March 22, 1972, by vote of 84 to 8, approving H.J. Res 208 and S.J. Res 8, 9, same wording. Negative votes were cast by Senators Bennett, Buckley, Cotton, Ervin, Fannin, Goldwater, Hansen, and Stennis.

Hearings before Judiciary Committees of House and Senate — May 5-7, 1970, 91st Cong. 2nd Sess. Senate Judiciary Sub-Cttee on Constitutional Amendments on S.J. Res 61 (793 pages of testimony). $3.25 from Supt. Documents, Washington, D.C. 20402. Analysis of Sup. Ct decisions under 14th A. pp. 112-135. Reports of CACSW on Civil & Political Rights of Women, and on Family Law reprinted pp. 137-214 and 215-298.

Sept 9-15, 91st Cong. 2d Sess, additional hearings, Senate Judcy Cttee. on S.J. Res 231, (433 pages). From Supt. of Documents, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Mch 24 to April 5, 1971, 92nd Cong. 1st Sess, before House Judiciary Committee, on H.J. Res 208 (721 pages) from Supt. Documents.

DEBATES in CONGRESS. (Congressional Record references; public libraries) — Aug 10, 1970, pp. H-7953 et seq. Rep. Martha W. Griffiths, on general impact and need of ERA, on limited debate under discharge petition, 91st Cong.

Jan 28, 1971, pp S-469-473, 92nd Cong. Sen. Birch Bayh, sponsor, with extracts from constitutional law scholars. Legislative history: labor laws; combat duty for women; right of wife to support, Prof Dorsen (471).

Jan 25, 1971, pp S-141-144 Senator Marlow W. Cook.

Oct 6, 1971 House debate, 92nd Cong. pp. H-9235 et seq. Full debate, crippling amendments rejected.

Oct 12, 1971, H.J. Res 208 passed by House, without change, pp. H9359-9392.

Mch 17, Senate debate, S4135-4146. Sen Bayh, on history, list supporters (4136).

Mch 21 S-4372-4430 debate centering on draft of women. S-4389 official data.

Mch 22, 1972 — Ervin's 6 crippling amendments rejected. Final Vote of approval.

Law Journals and Organization Magazine articles:

Yale Law Journal, Vol. 80, No. 5, April 1971, Special on Eq. Rts Amendment.

New York Law Forum, Vol. XVII, No. 2, (1971) pp. 528-542, "Equal Justice for Women — Update the Constitution" publ. New York Law School.

GFWC Clubwoman, Gen'l Federation of Womens Clubs, June 1970 on Married Women's Property rights;

Appendix P

SEX DISCRIMINATION

American women have long acknowledged—but no longer need accept—sex discrimination that limits their job opportunities, their chances for training, for higher pay and greater responsibility.

School girls who have found their choices limited to home economics classes when they'd really rather fix the car can now enter doors labeled Industrial Arts and Automotive Shop. Boys who were once discouraged from enrolling in cooking classes, even though their fathers made the best barbecue in the neighborhood, will now find a new attitude on campus.

Sex-oriented counseling is going out the door and biased aptitude tests with it. But banishing overtly discriminatory practices can go only so far toward creating equal opportunity. The pressures of a tradition-bound society affect many academically adept girls, who stay out of "boys' subjects" because they feel uncomfortable. Because these subjects—such as calculus, chemistry, physics—are basic to scientific and technical fields, girls who do not learn these fundamentals are already restricted in the college majors and careers they can select.

Even the so-called "woman's profession" of teaching has limitations linked to sex discrimination. Female public school teachers may experience "second-best" assignments, obstacles to advancement in the school system, and loss of seniority under mandatory maternity leave policies. While male physical education teachers are paid for coaching competitive athletic teams, female instructors who work with girls' teams are called faculty "sponsors" and classified as volunteers.

In higher education, women face discrimination in admissions and financial aid and in both teaching and nonteaching jobs. Much scholarship money is earmarked for male athletes, while only in extraordinary cases does a woman win such a scholarship. Until recently many graduate and professional schools referred matter-of-factly to their women's quotas, and some may still apply higher standards to their female candidates for admission. Faculty women may encounter unfavorable odds in finding a teaching job or be offered a short-term contract, may be expected to begin at a lower rank than an equally qualified man, and may lose opportunities for advancement because, as women, they have been shut out of the "old boy" system of recruitment.

A U. S. Office of Education study for the 1972-73 school year shows that women comprised 22.5 percent of the nation's 254,930 full-time college and university faculty members on nine- and ten-month contracts and received average salaries of almost $2,500 less than their male counterparts. Only 9.7 percent of all female faculty members were professors—compared with 25.5 percent of males at that rank—and 36.8 percent of the women were instructors.

Women employed in higher education may be victims of anti-nepotism rules finding that their defined status as "faculty wives" relegates them to lower-paying part-time teaching or nonprofessional jobs on campus. Or, as was the case with 20 husband-wife teams at one university, the woman may be expected to hold a position of less status and salary and to be ineligible for tenure. Maids sometimes earn less than janitors for the same work, and, female office workers may find training and promotion opportunities denied them on the basis of sex.

Sex discrimination can no longer be dismissed as a regrettable fact of life. Federal law prohibits discrimination because of sex in employment—covering all phases from job application and pay to fringe benefits and retirement—and in education, from high school electives to medical school admission.

Under Federal law, and with the vigorous and unrelenting effort of women themselves, the situation is beginning to change. Affirmative action plans—which are required of institutions seeking Federal contracts—outline a new picture. And that outline, OCR reviewers find, is being filled in with qualified women and minorities who are taking positions newly opened to them. Recruitment and promotion occur not only in university teaching jobs, but in administrative and support staff as well. In the face of the law, discriminatory anti-nepotism and maternity leave policies are falling, and sex-titled jobs, such as those that imply a nonexistent differential between maids and janitors, are prohibited.

EXECUTIVE ORDER 11246

Sex discrimination in employment by Federal contractor is forbidden by Executive Order 11246, as amended by Executive Order 11375. Coverage extends to a contractor's entire workforce, whether or not working in federally-funded positions, except for construction workforces in certain cities. This is the same authority that bans discrimination because of race, color, religion or national origin in Federal contract projects. Its enforcement by Federal contracting agencies is coordinated by the Department of Labor's Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC).

Each public or private institution receiving a Federal contract of $50,000 or more must have on file a written affirmative action plan and submit it to the contracting agency on request. An institution receiving more than $10,000 but less than $50,000 in Federal contracts must have an affirmative action program but need not have a plan. The agency conducts compliance reviews periodically—as it is required to do before awarding a contract over $1,000,000.

Discrimination may be discovered through the mechanism of the affirmative action plan, which is a projection of remedial steps based on the contractor's own analysis of its work force. If discrimination is found, the contractor's personnel system is reviewed for deficiencies, and the contractor must propose changes in the system and goals and timetables to bring employment up to parity.

If a contractor fails in this regard or is reluctant to comply, compliance review teams seek immediately to negotiate voluntary remedial action. The agency may delay contracts while the contractor takes corrective measures. If negotiations stall or fail, the contractor is brought to hearing before an independent Federal hearing officer.

A finding of noncompliance by the hearing officer will result in a recommendation that existing contracts be terminated and the contractor be debarred from participation in future contracts until its ability to comply with the Executive Order is established. The Department's decision is made by the Reviewing Authority (Civil Rights), or by the Secretary when he exercises his discretion to review the Reviewing Authority decision. Decisions become final upon approval of the Director of the Office of Federal Contract Compliance in the Department of Labor.

HEW's Office for Civil Rights (OCR) has jurisdiction over Federal contracts with schools, colleges and universities, hospitals, and other medical, health, and social service facilities. OCR's responsibility includes compliance in HEW-funded construction contracts and HEW contracts with State and local agencies and private, nonprofit organizations. Certain insurance companies, museums, art galleries, and nonprofit membership organizations are also covered. Compliance review staff are based in Washington, D.C., and in HEW regional offices in Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Dallas, Denver, Kansas City, New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco and Seattle.

The large number of individual complaints filed with OCR under the original provisions of the law—355 between November, 1971 and December, 1972— created a backlog of cases. Because of a broadening of its jurisdiction, to include the complaints of individuals in the teaching field, the equal Employment Opportunity Commission took over 137 of OCR's cases in March, 1972. OCR still handles group cases and class actions—instances where one person's report of discriminatory treatment is indicative of a pervasive pattern of discrimination. But new complaints from individuals are now handled by EEOC.

Under the Executive Order, sex discrimination complaints have been settled variously by awards of back pay (to individuals and to entire groups of employees), cash settlements, reinstatement where termination was traced to sex discrimination, and elimination of anti-nepotism rules where they affect only the wife. Wherever they are found, official policies which treat pregnancy as other than a temporary disability have been changed, as has been the practice of using sex-limited job titles, such as maid/janitor, where gender is not a genuine qualification for the job.

Complaints are made by letter to HEW's Office for Civil Rights in the region or in Washington, or to the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, U. S. Department of Labor, 14th & Constitution Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20210.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE ACT

Women who have come up against medical school quotas are not the only ones who have faced discrimination because of sex in health training programs. Men have encountered resistance when they sought to enroll in traditionally female nursing schools, and Congressional debate noted the fear that, without legislation, Vietnam veterans who were trained as paramedics by the armed forces and wanted to enhance their training as civilians might face sex barriers.

Sex discrimination in admission and employment in a health personnel training program is illegal if that program is receiving assistance under Title VII or Title VIII of the Public Health Service Act (as amended by the Comprehensive Health Manpower and the Nurse Training Acts of 1971), pursuant to sections 799A and 845 of the Act. These sections are enforced by OCR and mention specifically schools of medicine, optometry, pharmacy, osteopathy, dentistry, veterinary medicine, podiatry, public health, allied health personnel and nursing. By Departmental Regulation, 45 CFR Part 83, the nondiscrimination requirements apply to any institution receiving funds under Title VII or VIII. As under the Executive Order and Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, OCR may investigate all or part of an institution related to the program, either in response to a complaint or during a periodic review. If noncompliance is found, the Government may delay new awards, revoke current awards. The Department of Justice may also bring suit at HEW's request.

Complaints are made by letter to HEW's Office for Civil Rights in the regions or in Washington.

TITLE IX

Promising to do for nearly all phases of education what the Executive Order has done for equal employment opportunity, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 applies, with certain exceptions, to all educational institutions which receive Federal assistance.

Title IX prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in educational programs or activities. Admissions to the following institutions are exempt although all other aspects of the institutions are covered:

- Private undergraduate institutions.
- Elementary and secondary schools other than vocational schools
- Single-sex public undergraduate institutions which traditionally and continually from their founding have been single-sex

An institution whose admissions are not exempt from Title IX, but which was single-sex on the date of its enactment or within the 7 previous years, may have up to June 24, 1979 to convert to nondiscriminatory admissions.

Religious institutions are exempt from Title IX to the extent nondiscrimination is inconsistent with their religious tenets. Military schools are totally exempt if their primary purpose is to train individuals for U. S. military service or the merchant marine.

Because Title IX deals with sex discrimination in all phases of a federally assisted institution's educational program —and "institution" may refer to a college, a university, a local school district or any other organization offering an educational program or activity—it promises to have a deep and enduring effect on American education. Complaints are building new awareness about inequalities in athletic programs and facilities, vocational classes and extracurricular activities, textbooks and other instructional materials, pay differentials and discriminatorily assigned jobs for faculty and students.

Like the Executive Order and the Public Health provisions, Title IX is enforced by HEW's Office for Civil Rights. OCR investigates in response to the complaints of an individual or group, but must conduct periodic reviews as well. Under Title IX, as well as under the Public Health provisions, OCR may ask the Department of Justice to bring suit if negotiations with a public institution fail. A finding of noncompliance after hearing may result in termination of Federal financial assistance.

Complaints are made by letter to HEW's Office for Civil Rights in the region or in Washington.

OTHER LEGISLATION

Employees of institutions that do not hold Federal contracts are protected from sex discrimination by two laws, which apply as well to situations under the jurisdiction of Title IX and the Executive Order.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1912, prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin or sex in any employment practice by an employer (or an employment agency on behalf of a client) with 15 or more employees. The only institutions exempt under Title VII are religious institutions, which may require that an employee be of a particular religion or religious order if that is a bona fide occupational qualification. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission enforces Title VII, conducting an investigation after a complaint has been filed by an individual or a group on a sworn complaint form available from the nearest EEOC field office or from EEOC in Washington.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963, as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972, prohibits discrimination in salaries (and fringe benefits) on the basis of sex. It applies to all employees of all institutions. Complaints of discrimination are made to the nearest office of the Wage and Hour Division of the Employment Standards Administration of the Department of Labor, which may also conduct periodic reviews without a reported violation. The complainant may remain nameless, reporting only the offending employer, location, and the problem.

Requests for additional information regarding the HEW civil rights compliance program may be directed to the Office for Civil Rights in Washington, D.C. or to the Regional Office serving your State.

DHEW REGIONAL OFFICES FOR CIVIL RIGHTS

Region I (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont):
RKO General Building
Bulfinch Place
Boston, Massachusetts 02114
(617) 223-6397

Region II (New Jersey, New York, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands):
26 Federal Plaza
New York, New York 10007
(212) 264-4633

Region III (Delaware, D.C., Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia):
Gateway Building
36th and Market Streets
Post Office Box 13716
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104
(215) 597-6772

Region IV (Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee):
50 Seventh Street, N.E.
Atlanta, Georgia 30323
(404) 526-3312

Region V (Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin):
300 West Jackson Boulevard
Chicago, Illinois 60606
(312) 353-7742

Region VI (Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas):
1114 Commerce Street
Dallas, Texas 75202
(214) 749-3301

Region VII (Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska):
Federal Building
601 East 12th Street
Kansas City, Missouri 64106
(816) 374-3667

Region VIII (Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Wyoming):
Federal Building
1961 Stout Street
Denver, Colorado 80202
(303) 837-4345

Region IX (Arizona, California, Hawaii, Nevada):
Phelan Building
760 Market Street
San Francisco, California 94102
(415) 556-8586

Region X (Alaska, Idaho, Oregon, Washington):
608 Arcade Bldg. M/S 616
1321 Second Avenue
Seattle, Washington 98101
(206) 442-0473

Source: U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office for Civil Rights
Washington, D.C. 20201—(202) 963-5047

Appendix Q

List of Court Actions

1. Bartmass vs. Drewry USA, Inc., 3 FEP Cases 795 (7th Cir. 1971). Retirement plans that treat sexes different with respect to age are in violation of Title VII.

2. Bowe vs. Colgate-Palmolive Co., 416 F 2d. 711 (7th Cir. 1969) rev'g in part 272 F. Supp. 332 (S.D. Ind. 1967). Weight-lifting rule is in violation of Title VII. Candidates for a job must be tested on an individual basis without regard to sex.

3. City of Milwaukee vs. Dept. of Industry, Labor and Human Relations, 3 FEP Cases 355 (CC Wis. 1971). Dept. order requiring city to cease and desist from excluding women from bartenders job was upheld.

4. Cheatwood vs. South Central Bell Tel and Tel., 303 F Supp. 754 (MD Ala 1969). Weight-lifting restriction violates Title VII.

5. Cohen Vs. Chesterfield County School Board, 3 FEP Cases 525 (ED Va. 1971). School Board rule terminating pregnant women teachers at end of fourth month violates Civil Rights Act of 1871.

6. Diaz vs. Pan American World Airways, 311 F. Supp. 559 (S.D. Fla. 1970) rev'd by CA 5 Fla. (1971). Sex not a basis in hiring of stewardess.

7. Doe vs. Osteopathic Hospital, 3 FEP Cases 1128 (D. Kan. 1971). Firing of pregnant unwed woman violates Title VII.

8. Fair vs. Southern Bell Tel and Tel., 3 FEP Cases 152 (ND Ga. 1971). Pension plan allowing women to retire earlier than men appears to be in violation of Title VII.

9. Fillinger vs. East Ohio Gas Co., 4 FEP Cases 78 (ND Ohio 1971). Forcing females to retire earlier than men violates Title VII.

10. Garneau vs. Raytheon Co., 3 FEP Cases 215 (D Mass. 1971). State law limiting maximum hours for women violates Title VII.

11. General Electric Co. vs. Young, 3 FEP Cases 560 (WD. Kty 1971). State law regulating hours of work for women violates Title VII.

Source: Lyle, 1973

12. Jurinko vs. Wiegand Co. and Local 1020, 3 FEP Cases 945 (WD Pa. 1971). Refusing to rehire formerly unmarried women violates Title VII.

13. Kober vs. Westinghouse Electric Corp., 3 FEP Cases 326 (WD Pa. 1971). State law limiting working hours for women violates Title VII.

14. Tea vs. Cone Mills, 301 F. Supp. 97 (MD N.C. 1969). Statistical evidence alone is sufficient for a prima facie case.

15. LeBlanc vs. Southern Bell Tel and Tel., 3 FEP Cases 1083 (ED La. 1971). Rule limiting hours of work for women violates Title VII.

16. Mengelkoch vs. Industrial Welfare Commission (9th Circuit, 1971) 284 F. Supp. 950, 956; 393 U.S. 83, 993; 437 F 2d. 523. Class action suit to prevent enforcement of hours restrictions for women.

17. Phillips vs. Martin Marietta, 91 S. Ct. 496 (1971), rev'g 411 F. 2d. 1 (5th Cir. 1969). Excluding women with pre-school age children from employment violates Title VII.

18. Ridinger vs. General Motors Corp., 3 FEP Cases 280 (SD Ohio 1971) (Presently under appeal) Weight-lifting rule for women violates Title VII.

19. Rosenfeld vs. Southern Pacific Co., 293 F. Supp. 1219 (C.D. Cal. 1968). State law restricting hours and weights for women violate Title VII.

20. Sail'er Inn vs. Kirby, 3 FEP Cases 550 (Cal Sp Ct. 1971). Excluding women from job of bartending violates Title VII.

21. Schattman vs. Texas Employment Commission, 3 FEP Cases 311 (W.D. Texas 1971), 3 FEP Cases 468 (W.D. Texas 1971), rev'd by 4 FEP Cases 353 (5th Cir. 1972). State law requiring women to terminate employment at end of seventh month of pregnancy was found to violate Title VII by the District Court. The Circuit Court found reasonable grounds for such a regulation and reversed the District Court opinion.

22. Sproges vs. United Air Lines, 3 FEP Cases 621 (7th Cir. 1971). Restricting employment of women as stewardess to single women violates Title VII.

23. White vs. Crook (MD Ak. 1966) 251 F. Supp. 401. Barring women from jury duty unconstitutional.

24. Williams vs. McNair, 301 U.S. 951 (1971) aff'g 316 F. Supp. 134 (D. S. Ca. 1970). There is a reasonable basis for maintaining state universities on the basis of sex.

25. Weeks vs. Southern Bell Tel and Tel. 408 F 2d. 228 (5th Cir. 1969). State law on weight-lifting for women violates Title VII.